# OCTOBER THE 1905 AMERICAL STREET STR

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

Theodore Roosevelt, Peacemaker

Making Peace Between Russia and

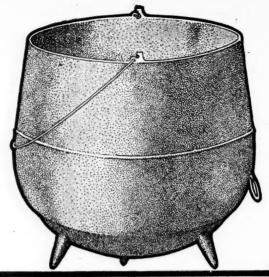
Japan

Russia's Reception of the Treaty
Japanese Influences for Peace
American Life Insurance on Trial
The New Metropolitan Museum of Art
The Uintah Land Opening
Mexican Water-Power Development
The Future of British India

The World's Periodicals in Review

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 13 Astor Place, NEW YORK

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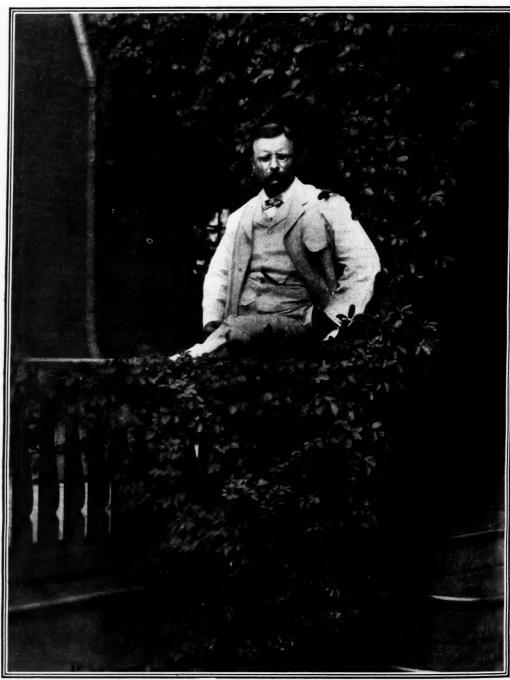
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THE PRESIDENT ON HIS PORCH AT OYSTER BAY

(From a new photograph taken for this magazine.)

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## THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

## Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXXII.

NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1905.

No. 4.

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

When the pages of this magazine The World were closed for the press last month at Peace Once More. the issues of war and peace were hanging in the balance, and the eyes of the whole civilized world were turned anxiously toward the conference of the Russian and Japanese envoys at Portsmouth. The prevalent note was one of pessimism and despondency; but our readers will have found that the September Review was not only hopeful in its attitude, but singularly accurate in its statements and its forecasts. On the 29th of August came the startling news that the diplomatic deadlock had been broken, that all main points had been agreed upon, and that a treaty of peace would be concluded within a few days. A week later, -namely, on September 5,-the treaty was actually signed, and the great Russo-Japanese war was at an end. Mr. Van Norman, of the staff of the REVIEW, who spent the concluding days at Portsmouth, makes a clear statement, elsewhere in this number, of the way in which the peace of Portsmouth was brought about, and of the nature and terms of the treaty itself. Thus, certain facts which otherwise would be embodied in this monthly narrative and conspectus of the world's progress are omitted because they will be found more fully given in Mr. Van Norman's article.

However various and divergent may have been the first impressions of the world's makers of public opinion in the days immediately following the great announcement, it was not long before there was reached a very general agreement that peace had come at the right moment, and upon terms both honorable and satisfactory. Undeniably there was for a time no small degree of disappointment in Japan, and among the friends and supporters of Japan in other countries, and a feeling

that the victor had come far short of the fair reward of his success. But a better understanding of all the circumstances was quite certain to dispel the gloom, and to make it plain that the conclusion of peace on fair terms at the opportune moment was the most complete and most brilliant success in all the long series of Japanese successes. War under any possible condition is a frightful calamity; and it behooves a nation to make peace thankfully when it has gained the objects for which it went forth to battle. The Japanese had fought because they regarded Russia's presence in Manchuria and Korea as menacing to the future safety and development of the Mikado's empire. Their victories had made it certain that Russia would concede, not only all that had been asked by Japan in the negotiations that went before the war, but vastly more. Besides all this, Japan had at a stroke acquired military and naval paramountcy in the far East, and had achieved an acknowledged place among nations of the first . rank. Such prestige had never come so quickly.

An Indemnity
Never
except the question whether Russia, having conceded so much, would also pay a large money indemnity as an inducement to have the fighting stop. Now that the situation can be viewed calmly and with some perspective, it is evident enough to almost everybody that it would have been a hideous mistake for Japan to have continued the war with the idea that the Russian Government at some future time would enter into another peace conference and yield to the Japanese demands for cash. Russia would never have consented to pay an indemnity, and Japan could never have collected one. If the war had continued for another year, the Japanese might have captured Vladivostok, with the loss of a hundred thousand men, and they

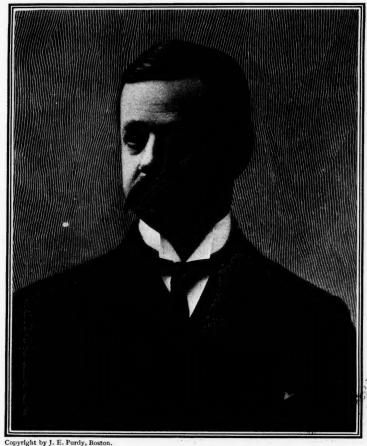
might have taken Harbin after a long siege through the summer of 1906. But they would still have been thousands of miles away from Russia proper, and they would have sacrificed great numbers of men and vast sums of money, with no corresponding advantages whatsoever. As matters stand, the Japanese have been wise enough to make peace at the moment when they are in possession of the maximum gains at the minimum cost. Seldom in all history has a nation appealed to the arbitrament of the sword with such marvelous success as that which now falls to Japan's lot.

Having secured for the immediate reaty with present all that she could have desired, as respects power and influence in the far East, Japan has had the further good fortune to make the longer future secure by a highly advantageous new treaty concluded with Great Britain. This new alliance goes far beyond that which had existed for several years previous. In effect it guarantees the status quo for almost the entire continent of Asia, apart from the Turkish Empire. Japan will have England's offensive and defensive support in her new position in the Yellow and China seas, and on the adjacent coasts, while England on her part can count upon Japan's support to withstand Russian movements of aggression in Persia or Afghanistan, or in case of designs against India. This treaty of alliance will relieve the Japanese from nervous apprehension regarding the future, while it will have a similar effect in lessening British fears affecting his majesty's imperial interests in Asia. The situation thus brought about promises to be one of stable equilibrium for a long time to come. It is highly favorable to neutral nations, inasmuch as it makes for permanent commercial opportunities. It secures beyond all further question the advantages sought by the government of the United States in its long insistence upon the so-called "open door" policy. That is to say, under the terms of Japan's treaty of peace with Russia and her treaty of alliance with England, we are absolutely sure of the retention of all the trading rights in Korea, Manchuria, and China proper that we have ever claimed or exercised. What we have to do now is to learn the best ways to utilize these opportunities, which had become precarious, but are now assured.

Russia Still As for the Russians, it was not an easy thing for them to confess failure and to give up Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung peninsula, the southern half of Saghalien, important parts of their railroad system,

and a certain intangible but real predominance in Manchuria and Korea. Nevertheless, it was not the game of diplomacy at Portsmouth that resulted in these losses to Russia, but the relentless facts of a war which had already put these properties and advantages in the possession of Russia's antagonist. Russia had the moral courage to recognize and accept a situation that could only have been made worse by further fighting. She had fallen victim to divided counsels, and had been plunged into a war for which she was not only unprepared, but which she had not anticipated as a risk to be seriously guarded against. With better diplomacy and better statesmanship, Russia could easily have avoided the war, won the proffered friendship and alliance of Japan, and still retained all of her prestige in the far East, supported by her navy and by her great stronghold at Port Arthur. But she trifled with her promises in the matter of evacuating Manchuria and opening it to commerce, and she showed reckless folly in her encroachments upon Korea. For all this she has been severely punished, and she pays a just penalty in losing Port Arthur and a part of the island of Saghalien. But let no one suppose that the great Russian Empire is reduced to the rank of a second-rate power, or that the Russian people have been checked in the smallest measure in their march toward a great destiny.

Episodes like this war are a part of A New the discipline of a crude and unde-Russian veloped race such as the Russians A new era of genuine advancement is already in sight for the one hundred and fifty millions of human beings who acknowledge the Czar as their ruler. In the military sense, Russia's position in the far East has been eclipsed; but it may be found a source of strength rather than of weakness for her to abandon, at present, all idea of armed dominance and to proceed with the agricultural and commercial advancement of Siberia, joining all other nations in peaceful and friendly efforts to develop Manchuria and to open up trade with all parts of China. Russia remains almost where she stood ten years ago as a far-Eastern power in the geographical sense, with the added advantage that she has now her great railway line to Vladivostok completed, and has made substantial beginnings in the planting of towns and the opening up of farm lands over a vast expanse of country. She had previously promised to evacuate Manchuria, and had disavowed designs of conquest against Korea. In a technical sense, therefore, she can claim not to have lost her permanent position on the Pacific coast. But she will not menace Japan.



HON, GEORGE VON L. MEYER.

(Mr. Meyer, as our ambassador at St. Petersburg, was of great service in the peace negotiations.)

The conclusion of this war marks President Roosevelt's Services. the great growth of the influence of the United States as a power in the affairs of the countries that border upon the Pacific Ocean. We have strengthened the ties of friendship that have always bound Japan to us, and we have been so fortunate as in great measure to restore the sentiment of Russian friendship that has been for a long time regarded in both countries as a thing to be valued. President Roosevelt's aid in bringing the work of the peace conference to a happy conclusion was a solid, substantial achievement, that has received the fullest recognition from those who have been best able to appreciate all the facts. This war was a difficult one to end, for the reason that both parties to it were strong, proud, and unexhausted. The Japanese were inspired with courage and hope by a series of unprecedented victories, and by the full belief that they could proceed to capture Yladivostok and defeat the army of Linevich. The Russians, on

the other hand, felt that the latent resources of their vast empire had as yet scarcely been drawn upon, and it seemed almost impossible to them that they should be set down as vanquished and humiliated before the eyes of an unsympathetic world. Under the circumstances, it required great moral courage on both sides to stop the war upon such terms as could be found mutually When the conference had reached acceptable. the point of deadlock and was about to break up in confessed failure, President Roosevelt was instrumental in securing delay at Portsmouth for the sake of bringing his disinterested opinions to bear directly upon the highest authorities at St. Petersburg and Tokio. He had satisfied himself that the time for peace had fully arrived, and that the way to bring about a settlement was to persuade the Mikado to drop the demand for money indemnity, and to persuade the Czar to yield the whole or a part of the island of Saghalien. Through Mr. Meyer, our ambassador, he was able to present his views directly to the Russian Emperor, and he had at hand the means of communication with the able and revered sovereign of the Japanese Empire. Mr. Roosevelt knew that he was expressing, not only the judgment of the United States, but also that of Germany, England, France, and other countries. His attitude was regarded as impartial and benevolent, and his suggestions were so definite and logical that they had about them a certain mark of finality.

These suggestions were accepted by the Czar and by the Mikado with the approval of the foreign office and ministry at St. Petersburg, and of the Elder Statesmen at Tokio. All this does not detract from the credit due to the envoys, who carried on their negotiations so ably and courteously at Portsmouth. But it has added a bright chapter to the history of the United States, has brought great and permanent fame to President Roosevelt, and has lifted our country into a far higher

position of influence among the nations than it ever occupied before. It was President Roosevelt who at the outset of the war took the lead in securing a limitation of the theater of hostilities, thus protecting China. It was President Roosevelt again whose direct appeal to the Czar secured the appointment of envoys to consider the question of peace. And it was his intervention in the end that adjusted the main differences and fixed the terms of settlement. Unless we are greatly mistaken, this fortunate outcome has brought about a condition of tranquillity that will hold for at least one generation in the far East, and that will afford the best opportunity for the modernizing of China and the expansion of trade and commerce.

Another Hague Congress. It was reported on September 19 that the Czar had issued invitations to a second peace congress at The Hague. Such a gathering of the nations was proposed, to the governments that had participated in the

first Hague congress, in circular invitations sent out by the President of the United States last year. The idea was favorably received, and the invitations were generally accepted, with the understanding that the date of the congress would probably not be fixed until the termination of the Russo-Japanese war. The responses were made public by Secretary Hay just before Christmas. The Czar's initiative at this time would be in full harmony with the preliminary correspondence carried on by our government last year. Nothing could well have added more to the arguments in favor of peaceful methods for settling international disputes than the history and the outcome of the recent quarrel between Russia and Japan. Russia had taken the lead in calling the first peace congress, and Russia should have been more than ready to accept arbitration, in case of the failure of diplomatic negotiations over the Eastern situation. Another peace conference can do much to carry forward the work begun at The Hague six years ago. Wars are not yet at an end; but the cause of peace is making marked and rapid headway. It fell to the lot of the American representatives at The Hague to lead the congress away from the futile disarmament idea to the more feasi-



From a stereograph, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

(Whose confidential relations with the President and the Mikado helped to bring the peace negotiations to a successful end.)



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT HIS DESK IN HIS OYSTER BAY HOME.

(Photographed expressly for this magazine.)

ble plan of arbitration treaties and tribunals. In the next Hague conference the American delegation cannot fail to have high prestige and great influence.

The President Roosevelt's sojourn at his at Washington Oyster Bay home ends with Septem-Again. ber, and executive work will center again at Washington beginning with October I. Mr. Root will have taken up his duties as Secretary of State, and Mr. Robert Bacon will have succeeded Mr. Loomis as First Assistant Secretary. Mr. Bacon, who is an old college friend of President Roosevelt's, has until recently

been a partner in the banking firm of Messrs. J. P. Morgan & Co. The President at one time asked him to take the responsible post of assistant treasurer in charge of the Sub-Treasury in New York. He is a man of high character and of the requisite accomplishments. There will be no extra session of Congress, for the reason that the leaders in both houses have been exceedingly reluctant to accept the idea, and the President has not deemed it wise or necessary to press the matter against the wishes of those upon whom he must rely for the support of his views and policies. He will have behind him more than ever the confidence and



MR. ROBERT BACON.
(First Assistant Secretary of State.)

moral backing of the great American public, and he will doubtless have to rely upon this national support in his endeavor, during the coming winter, to secure legislation for the better regulation and control of railroads.

Corporations The whole question of the national government in its relation to great Government. corporations doing an interstate business is certain to demand the first attention of Congress in the coming session. And the people will rely upon the President to recommend a suitable policy in his message, and after that to do all in his power to obtain satisfactory legislation. To what extent or in what way the life insurance companies may be brought under federal supervision remains to be seen. But that something must be attempted along the line of national control is now generally conceded. This view has been growing steadily since the first scandalous disclosures in the management of the Equitable. It obtained an overwhelming acceptance last month when the New York legislative committee began to probe the insurance situation in general, with disclosures that were of immediate concern to millions of people in every State and Territory of the Union. So great is the confidence of the country in the courage and wisdom of the President that he will have only to declare his opinions.

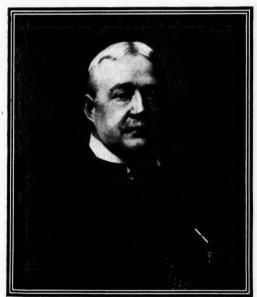
We publish elsewhere in this num-Probing the insurance ber an article by Mr. Walter Wellman, written in response to our request that he state for our readers his frank conclusions, after some weeks spent in studying the methods of the great New York companies. Mr. Wellman's main criticisms will be sharply opposed by a great many insurance men, but it is well to print them, because they are intelligently and honestly made; and to express them thus frankly is to give the best opportunity for refutation or for further discussion. Mr. Wellman is of opinion that the American people are paying a great deal too much for their insurance; that the agency system is wasteful and extravagant; that the central control and management in New York is not sufficiently safeguarded for the protection of policy-holders; and that the savings-bank features of insurance finance are open to the severest criticism, in view of the barrenness of their results.

We must be allowed to say frankly Insurance on behalf of the insurance companies that it does not appear thus far that they have invested the money of the policyholders unsafely or injudiciously. Such a company as the New York Life, for example, has been making its investments with great financial skill, for the benefit of all those concerned. Where officers or directors had seemed to be making money for themselves apart from their salaries, they have not, for the most part, gained anything at the expense of the policy-holders. but have merely benefited by the opportunities they enjoyed to get into things on the "ground floor," so to speak, or to handle securities for their own private account at what we may call the wholesale rate as distinguished from the outside marketing price that the ordinary investor has to pay. The way in which so-called "underwriting syndicates" assume responsibility for a large issue of railroad or government bonds was fully explained at great length by the officers of the insurance companies last month under the probing questions of Mr. Hughes, the chief counsel of the legislative committee. It would appear that the insurance companies, by going into partnership with the banking houses, in subscribing for such bond issues, have been able to invest their great accruing sums of cash a little more advantageously than if they bought their securities in the open market. In this investing part of the business, it is not likely to be shown that insurance funds in the main have been unfaithfully or unwisely handled. Where there is so much criticise, it is well to commend whatever is sound.

A great part of the fault of the methods of the insurance world lies in the Cost of costliness of getting new business and in the greed for aggrandizement. Beyond a certain point easily ascertained, there can be no advantage to the policy-holders of an insurance company in having the number of policies written greatly multiplied or the volume of the company's business further expanded. Doubtless it adds to the strength and security of a company to do a vast business and to hold immense funds invested in a wide range of securi-But to achieve such magnitude a company may have adopted methods for obtaining new business and rewriting old policies that would make the premium charge fifty per cent. more than it ought to be.

As to Political Contributions. Cidentally upon the insurance question itself.

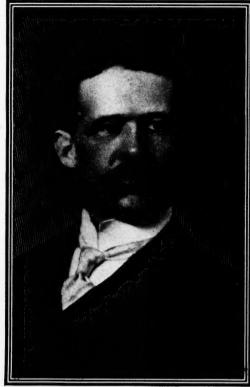
Some things that the investigation has brought to light bear only incidentally upon the insurance question itself.



Photograph by Pach Bros.

MR. JOHN A. M'CALL, PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

widest public attention last month was the disclosure of the fact that the great New York companies had been contributing at least fifty thousand dollars apiece to the Republican campaign funds in recent Presidential elections. They also, it is alleged, have put money into State politics. The standing excuse for these national campaign contributions has been the



Photograph by Pirie Macdonald.

MR. GEORGE W. PERKINS, VICE-PRESIDENT AND FINANCIAL HEAD OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

one that did service in the McKinley campaign of 1896. It was then asserted that a victory for free silver would so undermine the assets of the insurance companies as to affect almost ruinously the value of every outstanding policy. It was held, therefore, that the best possible expenditure that insurance companies, as well as other financial institutions, could make, for the benefit of policy-holders and shareholders, was a handsome contribution to the cause of the gold standard as against Bryan and the free-silver heresy. Such an argument is too fallacious to require discussion. Men of all sorts of political convictions pay their money into mutual life insurance companies for the strict and sole purpose of having their lives insured or their money saved and accumulated. They do not pay a penny for the purpose of creating secret political funds to be used by the inner groups of officers at their own private discretion to influence the political life of the country. In their capacity as citizens, the officers of insurance companies and other financial



Photographed for the New York American.

Mr. Charles E. Hughes, chief counsel.

'A SESSION OF THE NEW YORK LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE THAT IS INVESTIGATING THE LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

concerns may support their political convictions as liberally as they like; but they have no right to take other people's money, held by them in trust for distinct business purposes, and throw it into the game of politics.

A Vicious Practice Now Exposed.

In so far as contributions to State politics are concerned, the matter has always savored more of blackmail or of corruption than in the case of gifts to the



MR. RICHARD A. M'CURDY, PRESIDENT OF THE MUTUAL LIFE.

national campaign funds. State insurance departments can make themselves very disagreeable to insurance companies, and such State departments are almost always controlled by the party leaders or bosses. Thus, it is said, there has grown up a system of contributing to party managers,-often, if not always, to the managers of both parties, - for the sake of maintaining pleasant relations with the State insurance authorities, and for the sake, furthermore, of rendering it more certain that legislatures will not make attacks, or enact harsh or precipitate laws. It is perfectly well known that the whole system of American State politics, not alone in New York and Pennsylvania, but in many other States, has for a good while rested firmly upon the foundation of annual funds collected from corporations and put in the hands of party managers to maintain their organizations, to control legislatures, and to dominate political life at every point and juncture. The largest sums are paid, undoubtedly, by gas companies, street-railway companies, telephone companies, and other corporations holding franchises and exercising quasi-public functions. But many other companies, subject more or less to public regulation and control, have become the victims of this vicious method. It is going to be a matter of great difficulty to break up the system, in so far as it is carried on within State lines. The use of corporation money, however, for national campaigns will undoubtedly have come to an abrupt end in the disclosures of last month. Nobody comes forward to defend it, and everybody admits that it must be stopped. Congress will be expected to deal with it promptly next winter.

It would be wholly Who Is futile to attempt to lay the blame upon one party rather than upon Thus, the corporaanother. tions were very active in working against the nomination at St. Louis of a radical of the Bryan wing of the Democratic party, and secured the nomination of Judge Parker. The corporations had for several years been thoroughly hostile to Mr. Roosevelt, and had done what they could to prevent his nomination at Chicago. It was generally expected that they would contribute more last year for the Democratic than for the Republican cause. There was a flaw in the Democratic platform, however, from the standpoint of the money market; and as the campaign finally shaped itself the corporations probably gave a good deal more to the Republican fund than to that which Mr. Belmont and others were collecting on behalf of the Parker campaign. President Roosevelt's hands are entirely clean in all this matter, and he undoubtedly will take the lead in promoting measures to se-

cure the publicity he has already recommended for campaign contributions and expenditures, and in putting an end to the political use of corporation money in Presidential and Congressional campaigns.

The Canal The subject of the Panama Canal, in Question Looms Up many aspects of it, promises to be a Again. very absorbing one during the next Whether or not we are to have six months. new legislation, there will doubtless be some form of Congressional inquiry, and from various quarters there will be influences working for division of counsels and for confusion and delay. The most important question to be decided soon is that of the engineering character of the canal itself. Last month brought together the engineers who had been selected as a consulting Besides eminent American experts, the board includes distinguished foreigners named on President Roosevelt's invitation by the governments of England, France, Germany, and Holland. The body includes the chief engi-



MR. PAUL MORTON, PRESIDENT OF THE EQUITABLE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

neers of the Suez Canal, the Manchester Ship Canal, Germany's great Kiel Ship Canal, and other engineers of similar eminence and experience. Before making a report, these gentlemen are to inspect the Panama situation on the ground.

They visited President Roosevelt at Locks Oyster Bay on September 11, and the Sea-Level? President addressed them from the standpoint of American public policy. They are to report upon the relative feasibility of a canal with locks and a canal dug to sea-level. They are to give an opinion upon the question whether it would be possible to build a canal with locks in a comparatively short time and at some future period change it into a canal at sea-level by large further expenditure while continuing the canal in safe use. The President made it plain that the element of time in getting the canal opened is of great consequence to this country. While the report of the consulting board will have no authority and will not be conclusive, it will doubtless have great influence



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Captain Oakes, U.S.A., secretary.

Gen. Henry L. Abbott,
U.S.A. (retired).
Eugen Tincauser (Germany).
Joseph Ripley Henry Hunter
agineer of the Sault (Great Britain).

M. L. Quellenec (consulting engineer Suez Canal). Adolphe Guerard (France).

Isham Randolph Fr (engineer Chicago Drainage Canal). J. W. Welker Alfred Noble (Netherlands). (chief engineer Penn. R.R.)

Frederick B. Stearns
(Boston)

Gen. Geo. W. Davis,
eer U.S.A. (retired).

Prof. William H. Burr (Columbia University). William Barclay Parsons (New York).

THE MEMBERS OF THE ADVISORY BOARD OF ENGINEERS OF THE ISTHMIAN CANAL COMMISSION.

in bringing about a decision of the question. Mr. Joseph B. Bishop, an able and prominent journalist of New York, has been appointed to a position under the chairman of the Panama

MR. JOSEPH B. BISHOP.

Commission which makes him practically the chief of an intelligence bureau as well as the historian of the Panama enterprise. The constant services of such a man as Mr. Bishop will be of value, on the one hand, to the Government, and, on the other hand, to the press and the people of the country.

The enhanced prestige of the United Our South States will not of itself prove a sol-American Concerns. vent for every international problem and difficulty that our State Department must face, but it will help very appreciably. With the far-Eastern situation cleared up, the President and Mr. Root must give particular attention to South American affairs. It will require a high order of diplomacy, in which there must be tact and intelligence as well as sincerity and frankness, to secure for the United States the good-will to which we are fully entitled in the South American republics. Our relations with Brazil ought to be of the most cordial sort. Brazil, indeed, like Mexico and Japan, should be our close friend. Rio Janeiro is the great center of intelligence and influence in South America, and we should cultivate both political and commercial intimacy with Brazil

as a fixed policy. As for the Argentine and Chile, we should be on as friendly terms with their governments as we are with France, for example. With Venezuela and Colombia, it is necessary that our relations should be of a more influential nature. General Reyes, who was elected to a four years' term as president of Colombia last year, succeeded in having his term extended to ten years by action taken four months ago, and he is now virtually a dictator. His avowed object is to do for Colombia what General Diaz has done for Mexico. He must be persuaded to cultivate intimate relations with the republic of Panama, to accept the friendship of the United States, and to grasp fully the idea that the presence of the United States at the Isthmus gives the best possible guarantee for the prosperity and stability of Co-The canal will unite the two coasts of Colombia, which is the only South American state that, like our country and Mexico, fronts upon both oceans.

Mr. Root will have to give immediate Venezuela's consideration to the Venezuelan tan-Troubles. gle. President Castro has been dealing arbitrarily with the French Cable Company, with the German railway interests, and with the American asphalt properties. We have committed ourselves to the policy of seeing that the principles of justice should govern in the settlement of the claims of various foreigners against the Venezuelan Government. Having gone so far, we must see the business through. It seems that the asphalt interests are being penalized by Castro for having favored or promoted the attempt of General Matos, several years ago, to establish an honest and accountable government. It is, of course, a great pity that General Matos did not succeed, for, as a man of affairs and responsible character, he could have straightened out the diplomatic and financial tangles in which his country was involved, and made a fair attempt to do for Venezuela what Diaz has done for Mexico, what Palma has been doing for Cuba, and what Reves has undoubtedly hoped and desired to do for Colombia.

Our Most Inportant Meighbor. It would also seem as if Mr. Root might find important work for American diplomacy in bringing about closer relations between ourselves and the people of the great northern half of this continent. There are many reasons besides those that can be expressed in dollars and cents why the ties between the United States and the Dominion of Canada ought to be close and sympathetic. The most colossal blunder of American statesman-

ship was the failure of this country, years ago, to acquire the great empty territories lying north of the international boundary line and the Great Lakes, and west of what used to be Canada. This vast region did not belong to Canada any more than it belonged to us; and it could have been acquired from Great Britain for a song when we were nagging her about the Alabama claims. It is too late now to undo that mistake. Nothing could be further from the truth than the idea that Canada will by some sort of inevitable drift come finally into union with the United States. The drift is all in the other direction. Every year that passes more firmly crystallizes the independent position of the Dominion. There is only one possible means by which the situation can be improved, and that is through the reversal of our tariff policy and the adoption of the principle of reciprocity, or, better still, of commercial union.

The Two New Provinces.

Meanwhile, the prosperous development of Canada goes on at a rapid rate. This year has brought good crops and a great development of the grain and cattle interests of the Canadian Northwest. What has hitherto been unorganized territory lying between the provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia has now been given a changed status, and there have emerged from the temporary districts known as the Northwest Territories the two new provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. Each is of colossal dimensions, and will become



CANADA'S TWO NEW PROVINCES.

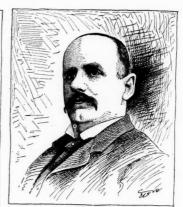
(In the map the two new provinces are shown by the black lines; the dotted lines indicate the territories out of which they are formed.)







HON. WALTER SCOTT.



HON. GEORGE H. V. BULYEA.

(The new lieutenant-governor of Saskat hewan.)

(The first premier of Saskatchewan.)

(First lieutenant-governor of the new province of Alberta.)

an important and notable self-governing commonwealth of English-speaking men. Already Manitoba, with its thriving capital of Winnipeg, has reached the stage where it has become one of the well-favored portions of the earth. Alberta and Saskatchewan are of much greater area than Manitoba, and will probably in the near future outstrip the older province in population and wealth. Winnipeg has become a city of colleges and universities as well as of large financial and commercial interests. The thriving towns of the new provinces will have a like development, and with Vancouver and Victoria on the Pacific coast the Dominion will in due time have a series of flourishing cities in its western half that will equal Montreal, Toronto, Ottawa, Quebec, Halifax, and the cities of the . older provinces. The Grand Trunk Pacific has broken ground, and will help greatly to develop the wheat lands of these new provinces, while the Canadian Pacific is pushing its system of branch lines, and other railway interests are penetrating what is within a few years to be by far the greatest wheat country in the world.

It is to our own people, pressing into this new country with their skill, energy, and capital, that a great part of this development will be due. The real prosperity of our own Northwest requires such freedom of relationship with the Canadian Northwest that traffic may follow its natural lines. At present our Northwest is doing well, but its future is to be greatly affected by these questions of policy and international relationship. Thus, the question of our Oriental trade is becoming one of great importance, not only to the

citizens of Seattle, Portland, Tacoma, San Francisco, and Los Angeles, but to the agricultural and other producing interests of the whole Pacific coast. It will require statesmanship and diplomacy of a high order at Washington to take such advantage of opportunities for trade and friendly relationship in the Orient as the continued advancement of our Western States requires. The Chinese boycott of American goods was no myth, but a serious reality, and it bears upon questions requiring delicate and studious treatment.

The Portland fair has been success-Success of the Portland ful from several standpoints, but especially from the one which its promoters had most at heart. What the Northwestern States beyond the Rockies most desire is more population of the right sort; and this object must be furthered by getting Eastern people acquainted with their opportunities and resources, and by making it easy for those at a distance to come and see. The Portland fair has advertised the Northwest, and it has secured from the railroads low fares and special excursion offers which have supplied the inducement to thousands of people to visit the coast. Instead of serving as a warning to other cities that may have hoped some time to create an exposition, the Portland fair will have had the opposite effect. It has already been demonstrated to the satisfaction of the people of Oregon that the fair has been an excellent investment. In connection with it have been held some great gatherings, notably that of the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress, which was brilliantly presided over by Mr. Theodore

P. Wilcox, of Portland, and which made Governor Francis, of St. Louis, its president for the coming year. Western interests, such as irrigation, forest protection, and many others, will have been greatly aided as a result of the Portland Exposition.

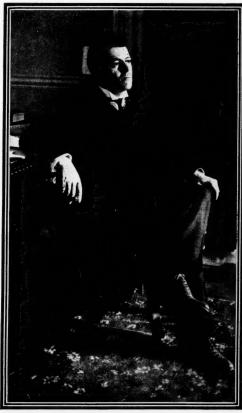
Virginia's Jamestown Fair. The next important undertaking of this sort to be held in America will be Virginia's exposition to commemorate the three-hundredth anniversary of the settlement of Jamestown. The death of Gen. Fitzhugh Lee deprived the exposition company of its zealous and able president. The Hon. Henry St. George Tucker, prominent as a lawyer and public man, who was president during the past year of the American Bar Association, succeeds Gen. Fitzhugh Lee as head of the exposition. If certain definite things are undertaken of an original and an appropriate sort, the Jamestown fair can be made successful in due measure.

Rew York's Municipal Campaign.

Perhaps the most significant thing about the pending municipal campaign in New York City is the manner in which the municipal-ownership movement has advanced to the point of claiming large recognition. In many regards Mayor McClellan's administration has been a marked improvement over former periods of Tammany rule. But



JUDGE WILLIAM J. GAYNOR.



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

MAYOR GEORGE B. M'CLELLAN.

(From his latest photograph.)

behind it there has been the Tammany control. and behind Tammany are the money and the power of the great franchise-holding corporations. When the attempt was made on the part of the anti-Tammany elements to come together in a fusion movement under the initiative of the Citizens' Union, it was found that the Municipal Ownership League had to be reckoned with as a very important factor, and that the Republican organization was quite as willing to cooperate with the municipal ownership people as with the more conservative element of the Citizens' The Citizens' Union was determined to make District Attorney Jerome the fusion candidate for mayor; but this was not agreeable to the Municipal Ownership League, and Jerome himself was strongly committed to his preference for another term as district attorney. When this magazine was closed for the press the fusion elements seemed about to agree upon Justice Gaynor as their candidate for mayor.



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WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME.

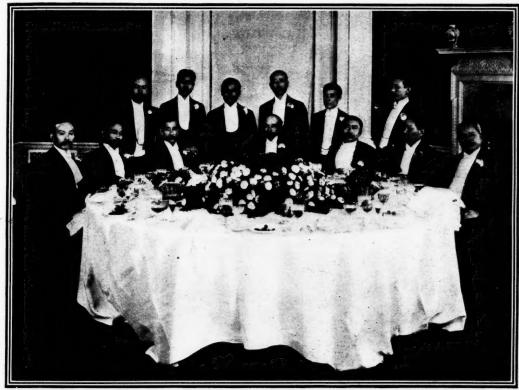
(District attorney of New York, who enjoys the unbounded confidence of the people and is a candidate for reëlection.)

His selection was particularly desired by the Municipal Ownership League, and his position in New York might be compared with that of Judge Dunne, chosen last spring as the municipal-ownership mayor of Chicago. Mayor Mc-Clellan is the Tammany candidate for a second term, and has great personal strength.

There are few important State elec-Some tions to be held this year. Ohio has Situations. a gubernatorial election, and Governor Herrick will run for a second term, with the Hon. John M. Pattison, president of the Union Central Life Insurance Company of Cincinnati, as his opponent. Both candidates are men of the highest repute. The Virginia election was, of course, practically settled in the Democratic primaries when ex-Congressman

Claude A. Swanson secured the nomination. Judge Lewis, of Richmond, who heads the Republican ticket, is universally respected, and the State will probably show decided Republican gains. In Pennsylvania it is not gubernatorial year, but other offices are to be filled, and the fight against the Republican machine in Philadelphia has extended itself to the State situation, the struggle being within the ranks of the Republican party. Mayor Weaver's fight against the Philadelphia ring goes on with unabated intensity, and the old Quaker City seems to be stirred to its depths. In Maryland there is an exciting campaign in progress in which the chief issue is the proposed amendment to the constitution restricting the franchise. The last legislature adopted an amendment intended to eliminate the negro vote, and this is to be submitted to the people for ratification in the November election. The Republicans, led by Mr. Bonaparte, Secretary of the Navy, are opposing the amendment. The Democrats, led by Senator Gorman, are supporting The amendment is so phrased that it gives to the

local election officers a discretion that would endanger the rights of citizenship. New England politics centers this year in Massachusetts, where principles and measures as well as candidates are always thoroughly discussed by the people of the most advanced and enlightened of all our States. As we go to press it is expected that the Hon. Curtis Guild will be the Republican candidate for governor, and it appears to be undecided whether or not Governor Douglas can be induced to reconsider his positive refusal to be the Democratic candidate. Gen. Nelson A. Miles is prominently named as the Democratic standard-bearer. The political and international interests that made Portsmouth so conspicuous on the map of New England have departed with the summer and the signing of the peace treaty, and the normal régime is resumed.



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THE JAPANESE PEACE COMMISSION AT BARON KANEKO'S COMPLIMENTARY DINNER IN NEW YORK (JULY 23).

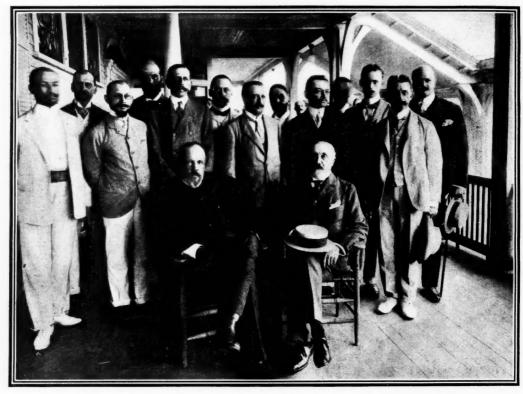
(Seated at the table, from left to right, are: Mr. Kotaro Konishi, private secretary to Baron Komura; Mr. Mineichiro Adachi, secretary of foreign office; Baron Jutaro Komura, the senior Japanese plenipotentiary; Baron Kentaro Kaneko; Mr. Kogoro Takahira, the Japanese minister to Washington and junior plenipotentiary; Col. Koichiro Tachibana, the military attaché, and Dr. Jokichi Takamine. Standing, from left to right, are Commander Isamu Takeshita, the naval attaché; Mr. Tokutaro Sakai, of Baron Kaneko's suite; Mr. S. Uchida, the consul-general at New York; Mr. Aimaru Sato, the chief of Baron Komura's suite and official spokesman; Mr. Masanao Hanihara, third secretary of the Japanese legation at Washington, and Mr. Junichiro Suzuki, of Baron Kaneko's suite.)

The real close of the long diplomatic Last Days struggle between the envoys of Portsmouth. Russia and Japan at Portsmouth came when Japan made her sudden and unexpected concessions in the matter of indemnity and Saghalien. Baron Komura's offer, at the morning session of August 29, to sell to Russia half of the island for six hundred millions. Japan's estimated war expenses, was refused by Mr. Witte. The Japanese envoy then offered to waive the indemnity claim and to compromise on the division of Saghalien. The Russians at once accepted, and then the world received the announcement that peace was a fact. The story of the making of the treaty, in detail, is told on page 418 of this issue. The actual signing was merely a formality, and copies of the treaty left the United States for Tokio and

St. Petersburg a few days after the historic moment in the navy yard building on September 5. The Russian copy reached St. Petersburg on September 20. The Japanese copy was expected to arrive in Tokio before the end of the first week of this month. Ratification may take place within a few days of the arrival of the Japanese copy, and must, according to agreement, be accomplished before October 25.

The Envoys and the American People.

Not the least important of the results accomplished by the conference has been the good feeling brought about among the envoys themselves, and the excellent impression made by the representatives of both powers upon the American people. At the close of the ceremony of signing, which was announced to the world over telephone and telegraph wires



THE RUSSIAN PEACE COMMISSION ON THE PIAZZA OF THE HOTEL WENTWORTH, NEWCASTLE, N. H.

(Beginning at the left and reading to the right, are: Mr. George Plançon, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Ivan Korostovetz, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Michel Batchev, of the Russo-Chinese Bank and attaché to Mr. Shipov; Minister Pokotilov; Mr. Gregory Wilenkin, financial agent of the Russian embassy at Washington; Mr. Constantine Berg, of the Russo, Chinese-Bank and attaché to Mr. Shipov; Mr. Ivan Shipov, special delegate from the Russian minister of finance, director of the treasury department; Prince Nicholas Kondachev, of the Russian foreign office; Gen. Nicholas Yermolov, delegate from the Russian war office; Mr. Constantine Naboukov, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Siebert; Captain Roussine, military adviser; Captain Rozhestvenski, naval attaché and chief engrosser of the treaty for the Russians. The only delegate not present when this photograph was taken was Prof. Theodore Martens.)

and accompanied by bell-ringing and cannonfiring, the Russians went to the Episcopal Church in Portsmouth, where a Te Deum service was held, partly conducted by Bishop Potter, for the American Episcopal Church, and partly by Father Hotovitski, of the Orthodox Church, of New York City,—the first time, we believe, since the very early years of Christian history that the Eastern and Western communions have been united in a single service on an international occasion. Mr. Witte, who has secured for himself a warm place in American remembrance, returns to his own country by all odds the most eminent of Russians, and in all probability the leader of the constitutional Russia which the world hopes may not be long delayed. Baron Rosen remains with us as the Czar's representative at Washington. His astute diplomacy and

friendliness to the United States have already been demonstrated in the part he has played in bringing about the Czar's removal of the discriminating tariff against certain American goods (the ukase was promulgated on September 9) and in the developments which have resulted in President Roosevelt's decision to keep in the background in the matter of a second Hague conference, yielding to the Czar in the matter of inviting the world to the second conference as he did to that first famous gathering six years Baron Komura, upon whom has rested the heavy responsibility of negotiating the peace which has aroused the violent opposition in Japan, and to the terms of which he was himself opposed, soon after his arrival in New York gave way under the strain, and while his case had been diagnosed as one of only mild typhoid,

yet the solicitous interest of the American people had been deeply aroused over his health and the Mikado had sent a personal cablegram inquiring after his welfare. By September 21, he was progressing satisfactorily. Mr. Takahira, who was not a well man when the conference began, also felt the strain under which he had been suffering since the beginning of the war. Late in September the report came that he had obtained leave to return to Japan, from which he has been absent several years, and that he would not return to the diplomatic service.

 $\frac{An\ Unpopular}{Peace}$  While the conclusion of peace between Russia and Japan has been hailed throughout the neutral civillized world as a great blessing, the news of the signing of the treaty at Portsmouth has been received in the Russian and Japanese capitals with much dissatisfaction. In St. Petersburg. the war party and the autocracy have not been consoled by Japan's failure to exact an indemnity. They only remember Russia's loss of prestige in Europe as well as in Asia, her exclusion from the Pacific seaboard, and the cession of what they are pleased to call Russian territory. -the southern half of Saghalien. Some of the press comment is very bitter, and the outcome of the Portsmouth negotiations is termed in one section of the press an inglorious peace. The Official Gazette, of the capital, remarks: "We have been overcome, not by Japan, but by our own dishonesty, happy-go-luckiness, and laziness. The dreadful lessons of this war will not be fruitless, and will force us toward better forms of life." The Novoye Vremya says: "Japan is dissatisfied with the peace! So are we. . . . This peace is only one phase of our relations with Japan, which are only beginning. We shall rest, and then doubtless go on." The provincial press, however, evinces great satisfaction. The liberal reform element generally welcomes the cessation of hostilities, although many of the more radical advocates of a constitution believe that the autocracy has not yet been sufficiently humbled for the good of Russia, and that it would have been better if the government had been still more nearly crushed by Japan, in order to assure its early surrender to a liberal progressive policy at home.

How the Peace Finds Russia.

During the few weeks following the announcement of peace, Russia had been quieter than for some months past, chiefly owing to the certainty in foreign relations and the hopeful looking forward to the meeting of the Duma. Peace will be a boon to agricultural Russia, and when the people have



SERGE WITTE, RUSSIA'S STRONG MAN.

(From a photograph taken at Portsmouth early in September.)

found their voice in some sort of national assembly a new era will dawn for the entire Muscovite nation. Two serious outbreaks of social disorder, however, had occurred during the past month,—one in Kishinev, the other in Baku. The Kishinev outbreak was another anti-Jewish demonstration, resulting in some loss of life and destruction of property. The rioting at Baku, in Trans-Caucasia, has been far more serious, and has extended to all the neighboring region, developing into a race conflict between the Mohammedans and the Armenians. Many oil wells and naphtha refineries in the Baku oil region, which is one of the most extensive in the world, were fired, and much property, including extensive British holdings, was destroyed. The oil industry is practically ruined, involving a vast loss to the state, and hundreds of Armenians and Tatars have been killed in the conflicts with the troops. A state of civil war really exists in the Caucasus, chiefly due to the harsh policy of Prince Galitzen, the governor-general, in oppressing the Armenians and in confiscating their churches. This was accomplished with the aid of the Tatars, and thus a war of religion as well as of race was stirred up.

By prohibiting the holding of pop-Elections for the Coming ular meetings for discussion of the election of delegates to the imperial Duma, which the Emperor has decreed for January, the autocracy has succeeded in partially nullifying the liberal effect of the elections. It is true that a commission, under the presidency of Count Solski, was appointed to arrange for public assemblages for the discussion of the election, in the cities, though not in the country. In view of the predominance given to the peasant representation, this is regarded by the Liberals as an attempt to prevent the political education of the lower classes. The peasants will have. altogether, about 2,500 members, the landowners 1,900, and the cities 1,300. Thirty-six members will be returned from Poland. The Emperor's plan, which is now being elaborated by the Solski commission, further contemplates the formation of a council of ministers, to be under the presidency of a premier, a body corresponding to the cabinet in western European governments. Fear on the part of the Liberal element that the promised Duma would never be actually granted is giving place to the conviction that a representative assembly is a certainty in the near future. particularly in view of the fact that the bureaucracy itself is anxious to be rid of some of the responsibility for governmental administration. The higher members of this much-discussed bureaucracy, by the way, number some thirty thousand, and include thirty-seven hundred councilors, the imperial family, the generals of the army, the admirals of the navy, and the members of the Holy Synod.

Very bitter resentment was aroused Rioting in Tokio. in Tokio when the reports reached the Japanese capital,—even before the treaty had been signed,-that very important concessions had been made to obtain peace. Serious rioting, extending over three days, occurred in Tokio, during which the residences of several unpopular ministers, some public buildings, and several Christian churches were attacked by the excited populace, some of the buildings being torn down, and some set on fire. The office of the Kokumin, the government organ and the only newspaper which defended the terms of the treaty, was wrecked. The residence of Viscount Yoshikawa, minister of the interior, was burned, as were also seven Christian churches. The venerable Marquis Ito, who is generally credited with having been responsible for Japan's unexpected concessions in the terms of peace, was stoned in the streets of the capital, and his statue in Kobé was pulled down from its pedestal and dragged through the streets. Dur-



BARON JUTARO KOMURA, JAPAN'S SENIOR PEACE ENVOY.

(From a photograph taken at Portsmouth early in September.)

ing the fracas, stones were thrown at a party of American tourists in Tokio, including the financier, E. H. Harriman, not from any anti-American spirit, but by the lawless element of the Tokio streets. Demonstrations were also made before the houses of Count Katsura, the premier. and Baron Komura, the secretary of foreign affairs and senior peace envoy. During the riots. three persons were killed and about five hundred wounded. The city of Tokio was placed under martial law, five newspapers were suspended. and guards set before the American and British legations. The disturbances originated with the attempt of the police to prevent the holding of a mass-meeting in one of the public parks to protest against the treaty. It is estimated that more than one hundred thousand persons crowded about the gates of the park, and when the police gave way stormy scenes were enacted, many

of the orators denouncing the government, in which they were joined by members of the Diet.

Resentment The proclamation of martial law in Against the the capital created a good impression, Statesmen. since, while the police are not popular in Tokio, the soldiers are. Disorders actually ceased, and with the resignation of Mr. Adachi, chief of the city police, and the statements to the people by the members of the cabinet, the Japanese capital once more resumed its wonted quiet and Premier Katsura, calling together informally a number of the members of the Diet, explained the situation and the terms of peace, and his words being reported to the populace did much to allay the excitement. Despite the announcement of Minister of the Navy Yamomoto that the capture of Vladivostok would have required a greater sacrifice of life than the attack on Port Arthur, and that of Marquis Yamagata that Japan needed an end of hostilities, the opposition papers were insistent in their demand for the resignation of the government. In submitting to the Emperor, in accordance with Japanese usage, their official statement explaining the necessity of instituting martial law in the capital, the government ministers asked the imperial judgment as to whether they should remain in office or retire. In reply, the Emperor advised his ministers to retain their posts, afterward, however, accepting the resignation of Viscount Yoshikawa, whose functions will be taken over by Count Kiyoura, the present minister of agriculture and commerce. The attack on Marquis Ito is symptomatic of a popular feeling which has been growing for some years that the so-called Elder Statesmen, Ito, Yamagata, Matsukata, and Inoué, represent a worn-out tradition that they are a relic of old Japan, whose usefulness is over. Marquis Ito's extreme caution is characterized by a popular saying that Ito would knock three times on a new stone bridge before stepping on it. That the advice of this Elder Statesman in persuading the Mikado to make his peace terms less exacting than the popular desire would have it was wise, far-seeing statesmanship is the conviction of the neutral world, and, moreover, it is coming to be the conviction of the more thoughtful Japanese.

Effect of the Peace on dap-which Japan went to war has not anese Politics: been actually attained, lest Russian aggression has not been effectually checked, lest, in the words of the Novoye Vremya, Russian shall rest, and then doubtless go on,"—this has actuated powerful elements of opposition in Japan to the peace treaty. The contention that

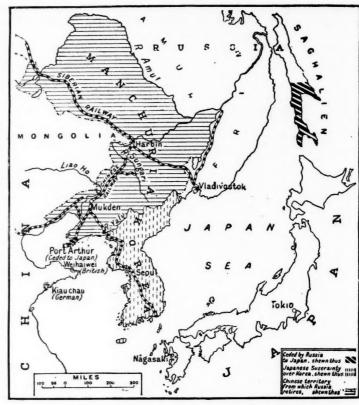
the empire has yielded the fruits of her victories in the field to the pressure of the outside world, at the instigation of a timid, unworthy statesmanship, and that, before many years, she may again have to fight for her national existence, is set forth by Mr. Adachi Kinnosuke on another page (430) of this issue. The riots in Japanese cities, the calling for the resignation of the ministry, and the summoning of Ito, and even Komura, to commit suicide, -these are all indications of the old Japanese national spirit which regarded failure to accomplish an object as demanding the self-inflicted death of the one who had failed. This old Japanese spirit claims that the empire has failed in her object. Despite its brilliant victories, the navy, according to this idea, has failed. Hence, the sinking of Togo's gallant flagship, the Mikasa (which went down on September 10 with a loss of 256 killed and over 350 wounded), was not an accident. The Mikasa was disgraced, and committed suicide. The Katsura cabinet, which was more or less of a makeshift one at the beginning of the war, has been kept in office by the popular unity, partly due to the strain of the war, but largely to the splendid patriotism of the Japanese people. The new conditions brought about by peace would seem likely to effect a thorough reorganization of parties in Japan, with the downfall of the present ministry and a probable radical change in the institution known as the Privy Council, at present composed of the much-criticised Elder Statesmen.

"Militant Japan passes and industrial Japan After the Japan takes its place with the coming of peace." The words are Baron Peace. Kaneko's, and in uttering them the special envoy of the Mikado to this country, who was influential, perhaps more than any other Japanese except Marquis Ito, in bringing about the final peace settlement, has summed up the immediate future of his country. Despite her unbroken succession of victories and the practical certainty that she would continue victorious in her military operations had the war gone on, the contest has inevitably been a drain on the island empire. According to financial estimates, she could carry on the fighting for another year without placing other loans, as her people have not yet begun to feel the burden of war. The cessation of hostilities, however, will permit her sons to apply all their vigor and energy to the tasks of commerce and trade. Japan's commercial standing in the world has improved with the progress of the war. Her first foreign loan, at the commencement of the war, was floated at 81 per cent. interest; her last at 5 per cent. Her trade has never been so prosperous, and the

harvests for two years past have been excellent. As a nation, Japan depends upon her maritime commerce largely, and her victory over Russia has opened to her the whole world east of Suez. The treaty opens Korea and Manchuria to her exploitation, and we may expect to see these regions soon invaded by an army of peace,artisans, farmers, and labor-Mr. H. W. Dennison, who framed the treaty for Japan, and whose knowledge of far-Eastern matters entitles him to speak with authority, declares that, even from a financial standpoint, Japan has gained much more than she went to war for, and much more than any indemnity she could possibly have exacted. The three essential points gained have been: the evacuation of Manchuria, the return of Port Arthur to China. and the withdrawal of Russia from Korea, and, of course, the immense gain in prestige. Mr. Dennison estimates the value of the railways transferred by Russia to Japan at

\$150,000,000; and that of the Yentai and Fushan coal mines at \$300,000,000. Mr. Yamaza. secretary of the Japanese Bureau of Political Affairs, maintains that the fishing rights along the Siberian coast will be worth at least \$10,000,000 annually.

However indifferent may have been Peace and the reception of the peace terms in the Russian capital (and Mr. Stead's article on another page of this issue records the remarkable lack of interest on the part of the Russian masses), the conclusion of peace was very welcome to the Russian soldiers in the field, and to the great majority of the Japanese also. A large portion of General Linevich's army celebrated by toasting President Roose-According to the treaty, an armistice was concluded on the signing, the terms of which were arranged by General Oranovski for the Russians and General Fukushima for the Japanese, which was effective from September 13. According to the terms of this armistice, a neutral zone has been established across which



JAPAN'S NEW FIELD OF INFLUENCE AND OPPORTUNITY IN THE FAR EAST.

neither side will advance. The gradual withdrawal of troops is to take place at the convenience of the commanding generals, but the evacuation must be complete within eighteen months from the signing of the treaty. the world does not know just how large are the armies which the conclusion of peace has prevented from engaging in another terrific contest, it is certain that more than a million men are still under arms in Manchuria and Korea. A code word had been agreed upon which, had the peace terms failed, would have been flashed to General Linevich as the signal to hurl himself upon Marshal Oyama's forces. The Russian commander himself and many of his officers were disappointed at the conclusion of peace, as they wished their unbeaten commander to have an opportunity to meet the hitherto victorious enemy. It was Linevich's half · million men under arms which was Russia's chief reason for claiming that, though she had suffered reverses, she was not a vanquished nation. A naval armistice was concluded later by Rear-Admiral Jessen for Russia and Vice-Admiral Kamimura for Japan.

From the attack on the Russian Port The War Arthur ships, February 8, 1904, to Retrospect. the defeat of Admiral Rozhestvenski's Baltic fleet by Admiral Togo, May 27, 28, and 29, last, the war has been, during its twenty months, a complete, uninterrupted Japanese victory. Japan has lost no engagement of any consequence either at sea or on land, while Russia leaves the field with her navy almost annihilated and without one single land victory worth mentioning to her credit. The best figures obtainable indicate that Russia sent between eight and nine hundred thousand men to Manchuria, of which 375,000 have been killed or incapacitated. The Japanese forces were approximately as large, though possibly a little less, and Japan's losses in men killed, wounded, and in hospitals are 250,000. The severe Japanese losses sustained during the siege of Port Arthur were almost neutralized by the superb medical and sanitary organization of the Mikado's armies, in which the best attainments of Western nations have been far surpassed. The approximate cost of the war to Russia was a thousand million dollars (these are the figures-which include the property destroyed-given by the Official Gazette, of St. Petersburg), while the Japanese losses were about one-half that amount. According to official figures, the Russian naval losses-17 lattleships, 12 cruisers, and many torpedo boats and destroyers—footed up \$113,000,000. On the other hand, despite her loss of nine battleships, cruisers, and destroyers (approximately \$20,-000,000), Japan emerges from the contest with a gain of \$30,000,000 in fighting ships. In the great battles of the Yalu, Nanshan, Telissu, Liao-Yang, Sha-ho, and Mukden, on the land, and the Port Arthur and Sea of Japan engagements on the sea, Japan lost but two generals, while Russia lost six generals and four admirals. Beyond all this there is the immense moral and political value of the prestige in both Europe and Asia, which has been quietly but absolutely transferred from Russia to Japan. The Land of the Rising Sun is now the first nation of the far East, and Russia's Manchurian venture is ended for generations,—if not forever.

The Awakening of China. Evidences have not been wanting during the progress of the war between Russia and Japan of a real awakening to modern conditions of progress in China. The peace settlement itself will be of immense benefit to the empire, which, according to acute observers of Eastern conditions, will itself some day become the power in the Orient. Following closely upon the news that China had bought back the Canton-Hankow railroad from

the American syndicate controlled by J. P. Morgan & Co. despite all the efforts of the American and Belgian holders to prevent it, came the announcement by Sir Chentung Liang-Cheng, the Chinese minister at Washington, that the Peking government is evolving a vast plan for the gradual emancipation of China from foreign tutelage in industry and commerce and for the emulation of Japan's example in adopting educational reforms to pave the way for Western civilization. Thousands of Chinese students are in Japanese schools learning the arts of peace. Thousands of Chinamen are being trained by Japanese and German instructors in the military art. One of the concrete indications of the fact that the Peking government is really awakening is the intention announced by the Chinese ambassador to construct, under Chinese auspices, a great trunk railway, traversing the central and most fertile provinces of the empire, from Canton to Peking. This line will go through the three important provinces of Kwangtung, Hunan, and Hepeh, and the Canton-Hankow concession will form its southern branch. The release of Manchuria from Russia's exclusive control will give to the Chinese the opportunity which they are best adapted to embrace,—that of commercial progress.

After visiting the French fleet at British Imperial Politics. Brest and receiving the return call at Portsmouth, the British Channel fleet took its long-expected and much-discussed trip to the Baltic. Along the coast of Holland, at Danish and Scandinavian ports, and even in German waters, the cruise was almost an ovation. There was some anti-British grumbling in some of the German press against the coming of the fleet into the Baltic as a British insult to the German navy, but the Kaiser himself sent a squadron to welcome the British ships at Swinemunde, and the two navies fraternized cordially. British imperial politics during the past month had been further marked by two important occurrences. These were the renewal of the alliance with Japan (or, rather, the announcement of it) and the developments in the situation in India. Three days before the adjournment of Parliament (August 11), the new treaty was signed between England and Japan, the provisions of which, however, were not given out until the conclusion of the peace conference at Portsmouth. The old alliance was purely a defensive one. The new one provides for common action for both defensive and offensive purposes. The terms have not yet been made public, but are really a cementing of British-Japanese relations so closely that the future of the continent of Asia for a generation

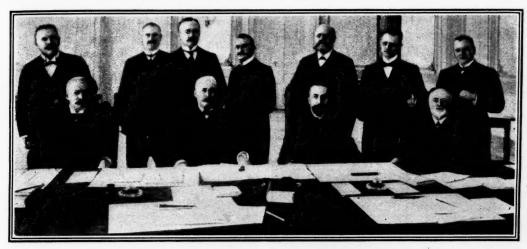


LORD MINTO, THE NEW VICEROY OF INDIA.

at least seems assured. Lord Curzon's resignation as viceroy of India came about as the direct result of the refusal of the British cabinet to appoint his nominee as military member of the viceroy's advisory council. It really, however, marks the end of the conflict of two strong minds -Curzon and Kitchener-and two irreconcilable principles-those of civil and military control of the army in India. The new vicerov, Gilbert John Elliot, Earl of Minto, has had a long experience in imperial politics. He has been governor-general of Canada. He is known to be in sympathy with Lord Kitchener's plan for the defense of India. A discussion of the present social and political conditions in Great Britain's Asiatic possessions and the future which is before India, by the eminent authority, Sir Henry Cotton, is found on page 453 of the REVIEW this month.

British internal politics have seemed A Forecast of the Coming to wait on the fate of the Balfour Parliament. ministry, which still hangs in the balance. In a recent interview with a Canadian newspaper on the political situation in England, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, the ex-chancellor of the exchequer, predicted that there will be no general election this year. He believes that Mr. Balfour will meet Parliament next February, as usual, that he will fail to carry through his bill for the redistribution of seats in England and Ireland, and that on this measure he will appeal to the constituencies and be overwhelmingly de-Sir Michael expects to see from thirtyfive to forty Labor members on the government benches in the new House of Commons. This admission, with no apprehensive comments, from so typical a representative of the Tory squirearchy as Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, is particularly significant. It is worth while, in view of the recent pessimistic reports about British trade, to read the figures of British commerce for 1905 issued by the Board of Trade. These show that the imports and exports for the year ending with that month, for the United Kingdom, were the largest on record. Since January last, the increase in imports has been more than \$46,000. 000, and in exports nearly \$89,000,000.

Slowly but surely, the effect of the Affairs in Central far-Eastern war is becoming evident in central Europe. The peoples of Germany, Austria, France, and Italy are awaking to the fact that, while Russia's defeat by Japan has necessitated a radical reshaping of political groups on the Continent, the conclusion of peace, permitting Russia to make use in Europe of General Linevich's vast Manchurian army, has modified the new conditions and tended toward restoring a state of stable equilibrium. It was Russia's temporary effacement by Japan which. beyond a doubt, encouraged Germany to attempt France's discomfiture in the Morroco affair, the outcome of which was the solidifying of the Anglo-French agreement. It is now the release of Russia from her misadventure in Manchuria which modifies Germany's foreign policy, compelling her to take thought for the future of her possessions in China in the face of a victorious Japan, and inevitably necessitating a modified tone toward France all along the lines of German relations with the republic. Despite frequent hitches, the Morocco problem bids fair to reach an early and peaceful settlement. The developments of the past month have been Germany's official denial of the charge that she had forced the Moorish Sultan to yield her a port and the "agreement between the two powers



THE CONFERENCE AT KARLSTAD, SWEDEN, SETTLING THE SCANDINAVIAN CRISIS.

(Reading from left to right, standing: Mr. K. Staaff [Swedish], a Swedish secretary; Mr. N. Hammarskjöld [Swedish], a Swedish secretary; Mr. Lövland [Norwegian]; Mr. Vogt [Norwegian], a Norwegian secretary. Sitting: Count Wachtmeister [Swedish foreign secretary], Mr. Lundberg [Swedish premier], Mr. Michelsen [Norwegian premier], Mr. Berner [Norwegian].)

to hold the international conference at Algeciras, in Spain, instead of at Madrid or Tangier. Germany is having no easy task in adjusting her tariff relations with Russia and the United States. Meanwhile, a cholera epidemic of no small proportions, resulting in sixty-five deaths, has been agitating the eastern and southern provinces of the empire, extending from Hamburg into Russia and Austria. Southern Italy has suffered from a series of severe earthquake shocks, a number of villages in Calabria having been entirely destroyed and many lives lost. King Victor Emmanuel has been tireless in his personal efforts to aid the sufferers. Austria has been celebrating the seventy-fifth birthday of her aged Emperor, Francis Joseph, who retains the respect and affection of his many-tongued subjects. The Hungarian situation, however, is still unsettled, the Fejervary cabinet having, as was expected, been forced to resign early in September.

Norway and Sweden and Norway to negotiate the points in dispute between the two nations and arrange for the peaceable dissolution of the union met at Karlstad on August 31. The Swedish delegates were: Premier Christian Lundberg; Count A. F. Wachtsmeister, minister of foreign affairs; Mr. Hammarskjöld, minister of education and ecclesiastical affairs; and Mr. Staaf, cabinet member without portfolio. Norway was represented by Premier Michelsen, Foreign Minister Lövland, President of the Storthing Berner, and Mr. Vogt, formerly minister

of the interior. Sweden's demands that the fortifications along the border be dismantled were vigorously opposed by Norway, and for several days the feeling was very pessimistic. By the end of September, however, the negotiations had proceeded far enough for the world to feel confident that the peace and friendship between the two brother peoples would not be broken.

Presidential Cuban politics has been rather excitCampaign in Since the nominating convention
of Sentember 9 at which President of September 9, at which President Palma was unanimously re-chosen by the Moderate party for reëlection, Mendes Capote receiving the nomination for vice-president. The platform declares for a reciprocity treaty with the United States, but no direct mention is made of the Platt amendment, as the Moderate party considers that matter settled. The trade treaty with Great Britain, which was signed last May and is now awaiting ratification, has received considerable adverse criticism on the ground that Cuban commercial interests with the United States are too great to permit her granting for ten years such special privileges to British shipping and citizens as are provided for in the treaty. A number of commercial associations have declared emphatically against ratification. In general, Cuba is prospering, and public works and other matters are going on apace. Late in August, President Palma signed the bill providing for the payment of \$28,500,000 to the Cuban veterans of the war with Spain. This is in addition to the large sum already provided for that purpose.

### RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From August 21 to September 20, 1905.)

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT-AMERICAN.

August 21.—The naval court of inquiry on the Bennington explosion finds that the vessel's boilers were not defective and suggests a court-martial for Ensign Charles T. Wade, the only survivor of those whom the court holds responsible for the accident.... A separate

Statehood convention assembles at Muskogee, Indian Territory.

August 22.-Edwin H. Conger, ambassador to Mexico, resigns from the diplomatic service....At the Democratic primaries held in Virginia, United States Senator Martin defeats Gov. A. J. Montague for the Senatorship and Claude A. Swanson is nominated for governor.

August 26.-The federal grand jury at Portland, Ore., indicts Claude F. Thaver, the son of ex-Governor Thayer, and others for participation in the land frands.



HON. CLAUDE A. SWANSON.

(Democratic candidate for governor of Virginia.)

August 28.—Edwin S. Holmes, Jr., indicted in the government cotton report scandal, surrenders and gives \$10,000 bail at Washington.

August 29.—Secretary Taft's party of Congressmen at Manila give a hearing to agitators for the immediate independence of the Philippines.

August 30.—Secretary Bonaparte disapproves the report of the naval court of inquiry on the Bennington disaster and orders a court-martial for Commander Young, who was in command of the gunboat.

August 31.-President Roosevelt fixes the pay of expert advisers to the Panama Canal Commission at \$5,000 and \$15 per diem and other expenses.

September 1.—The foreign and American engineers constituting the advisory board of the Panama Canal Commission organize in Washington.

September 2.—Secretary Bonaparte announces the detail of the court-martial to try Commander Young and Ensign Wade for the Bennington explosion.

September 3.—District Attorney Jerome declares positively that he will not be a candidate for mayor of New York City.

September 4.—President Roosevelt appoints Robert Bacon, of New York, Assistant Secretary of State to succeed Francis B. Loomis....It is announced that the United States Civil Service Commission will establish agencies in New York, New Orleans, and Chicago for the employment of labor for the Panama Canal.

September 5.-President Roosevelt demands the resignation of Frank W. Palmer, Public Printer, because of trouble in the Government Printing Office.... The trials of packers in Chicago for violation of the anti-trust laws are postponed.

September 6.-The New York legislative insurance committee begins its public investigation of insurance methods in New York City.

September 8.-Public Printer Palmer having declined to resign, he is summarily dismissed from the government service by President Roosevelt.

September 10.—The report of the Keep Commission on the government printing scandals is published.

September 14.—The State auditor of Indiana is superseded in office, on the order of Governor Hanly, because of "betrayal of public trust."

September 16.—President Roosevelt's suggestions to the Panama Canal engineers calling for speed in construction are made public in Washington . . . . The political fight in Philadelphia against Mayor Weaver is begun.

September 18.-A clerk in the public health service in Washington confesses to embezzling \$20,000 of the funds of the service.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT-FOREIGN.

August 21.-A general strike begins in Poland, as a manifestation of discontent with the treatment of the Polish population in the proposed constitution.

August 22.—Reports from various quarters in Russia indicate puplic dissatisfaction with the details of

the scheme for a national assembly.... The Norwegian Storthing, in secret session, by a vote of 104 to 11, passes a resolution requesting the Swedish state authorities to cooperate with it in the dissolution of the union....A conference is held at Ischl, under the presidency of Emperor Francis Joseph, to consider the present Hungarian political crisis.



At a Swedish cabinet council, it is decided to accede to the Norwegian request for the cooperation of Sweden in dissolving the union.

August 25.—Lord Kitchener protests against Lord Curzon's telegram concerning his proposals.



"CORPORAL" JAMES TANNER.

(Commander - in - chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.)

August 28.—At a meeting of professors at the Odessa University, it is decided to abstain from the university work until the Russian people are given civil rights and the universities are granted full academic autonomy.

August 29.—The Chinese Government cancels the rights and concessions of the Canton-Hankow railway, paying an indemnity of \$6,750,000 to the American-

China Development Company....A Chinese government official ordered to settle the boycott troubles fines Chinese merchants for selling American goods.

August 30.—The Bulgarian ministry is reconstructed under Petkoff.

August 31.—The Prussian cabinet takes preventive measures against the spread of cholera.

September 1.—The British imperial army council decides to give Canada fortifications (no Nova Scotia free, and supplies, ammunition, and small arms at cost.

HON. HENRY ST. GEORGE TUCKER. (Retiring president of the Amercan Bar Association and new head of the Jamestown Fair.)

September 5.—The executive committee of the Zemstvo Congress at Moscow votes to take an active part in the national assembly elections.

September 6.—Further anti-Jewish outrages are reported from Kishinev....The entire Baku region, in Russia, is under control of the rioters.

September 10.—The Czar of Russia issues a ukase placing the government of the universities in the hands of the professors.

September 11.—The legal execution of a Socialist leader excites a general strike in Warsaw....The Hungarian proposal for universal suffrage is rejected by Emperor Francis Joseph.

September 14.—As a result of the dispersal of the meeting of Finnish representatives at Helsingfors, threats are made to kill the governor-general of Finland....Emperor Francis Joseph accepts the resignation of the Hungarian cabinet.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

August 22.—France demands of Morocco an indemnity for the arrest of a Franco-Algerian citizen.

August 24.—The French council of ministers decides on a military demonstration against Morocco unless the Franco-Algerian citizen is promptly released.

August 25.—London announces the signing of a new Anglo-Japanese treaty of alliance.

August 26.—The Sultan of Morocco refuses to recognize control by France over Franco-Algerian citizens and to release the imprisoned merchant; France prepares to enforce her demand.

August 28.—The French Government orders two cruisers held in readiness to sail for Morocco.

August 29.—The peace plenipotentiaries of Russia



From the London Graphic.

THE HISTORIC MEETING THAT EXCITED ALL EUROPE.

(An interesting photograph of Czar Nicholas and Kaiser Wilhelm in conversation at Bjoerkoe.)

and Japan reach an agreement on all points, Japan waiving indemnity, the possession of the interned warships, and the limitation of Russian naval power in the far East, while Saghalien is to be divided between Russia and Japan (see page 418).

August 30.—The Sultan of Morocco releases the Franco-Algerian merchant under a threat of military demonstration, but offers neither an apology nor an indemnity to France.

August 31.—Delegates from Norway and Sweden open the conference at Karlstad, Sweden, to arrange

the terms for the dissolution of the union of the two countries.

September 1.—The Russo-Japanese peace plenipotentiaries agree on an armistice to become operative on the signing of the treaty.

September 2.— France presents her ultimatum to Morocco on the question of the release of the Franco-Algerian prisoner.

September 5.—The Russo-Japanese plentpotentiaries sign the treaty of peace at the Portsmouth navy yard .... President Castro,



HON. GEORGE R. PECK.
(New president of the American
Bar Association.)

of Venezuela, receives United States Minister Russell and Special Agent Calhoun, appointed to investigate the relations between the United States and Venezuela .... The general manager of the French Cable Company protests against the Venezuelan decree closing the company's offices.

September 6.—Much popular disappointment over the peace terms with Russia is manifested in Tokio and other parts of Japan.

September 11.—Turkey refuses to accept the contention of the United States in the case of an Armenian naturalized in the United States and under sentence of death at Stamboul.

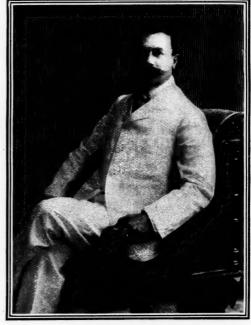
September 12.—Relations between Roumania and Greece are severely strained, the Greek minister having left Roumania and orders having been sent to the Roumanian minister to leave Greece.

September 15.—Representatives of General Linevich and Marshal Oyama, meet and sign an armistice providing a neutral zone of four kilometers between the Russian and Japanese armies.

September 16.—An official announcement in regard to the deliberations of the commissioners of Sweden and Norway at Karlstad indicates that all fears of war between the two countries are passed.

September 18.—It is reported from St. Petersburg that the Czar of Russia intends to invite the powers to a second peace conference at The Hague....Russia makes a strong protest to the Porte regarding fortifications which Turkey is building on the Bosporus.... Points of dispute between Norway and Sweden are intrusted to a sub-committee of delegates at Karlstad.

September 19.—The French minister to Venezuela lodges a protest against that government's action in the case of the French Cable Company....Turkey yields



MR. SALVATORE CORTESI.

(The Rome correspondent of the American Associated Press, an Italian journalist who represented at Portsmouth several influential Italian dailies.)

the first step in regard to the rights of American citizens in that country.

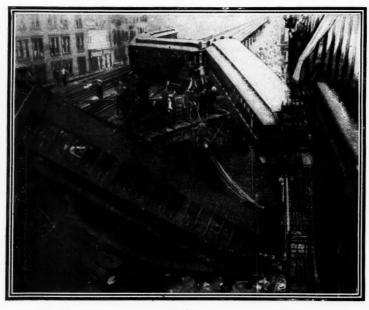
#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 23.—The American Bar Association holds its annual meeting at Narragansett Pier, R. I....A. Roy Knabenshue makes a successful voyage in his airship over New York City.

August 25.—President Roosevelt spends some time under water on the submarine boat Plunger.... The mining towns of Berwind and Tabasco, Colo., are swept by floods following a cloudburst; 18 lives are believed to have been lost .... A Japanese transport which comes into collision with a British steamer in the Sea of Japan is sunk and 160 Japanese on board are drowned.

August 26.—A new scientific process for manufacturing diamonds is reported as discovered by Dr. C. V. Burton, of Cam bridge, England.

August 28.—The American steamship *Peconic*, loaded with coal, sinks off the Florida



WRECK OF AN ELEVATED TRAIN IN NEW YORK ON SEPTEMBER 11, 1905.

coast, and 28 of her crew are drowned.... The Interparliamentary Congress opens at Brussels.... The members of the British Association for the Advancement of Science arrive at Johannesburg.

August 29.—The largest steamship in the world is launched at Stettin in the presence of Emperor William of Germany.

August 30.-Three earthquake shocks are felt in New Hampshire....The eclipse of the sun is invisible at American observatories because of clouds, but shows a magnificent corona in Egypt, Algeria, Tunis, and other observation points.... Cholera becomes epidemic in Germany near the Russian border.

August 31.—The United States battleship Vermont is launched at Quincy, Mass... The Depew Improvement Company pays the Equitable Life Assurance So-

ciety the principal and interest of a loan made in 1898 .... Cholera in Germany spreads to Hamburg.

September 3. - Los Angeles, Cal., is visited by a heavy earthquake without material dam-

September 7. - The Southern Cotton Growers' Association fixes the minimum price of cotton at 11 cents.

September 8.-An earthquake in Calabria, Italy, destroys 18 villages and causes the loss of 400 lives....Corporal James Tanner is elected commander-inchief of the Grand Army of the Republic.



THE LATE MRS. MARY MAPES DODGE. (Editor of St. Nicholas.)

September 10.—Plans are announced in London to raise \$60,000,000 to carry out the Irish Land Act.... The Japanese battleship Mikasa, Admiral Togo's flagship, is sunk by the explosion of a magazine and more than 200 lives are lost.

September 11.-An elevated railroad car is thrown from the track to the street by a misplaced switch in New York City; 12 passengers are killed and more than 40 injured.

September 12.—The bridge of the Cape to Cairo Railway across the Zambesi River is formally opened in the presence of members of the British Association.

#### OBITHARY.

August 21.-Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge, editor of St. Nicholas and writer of children's stories, 67.... Rev. Jacob Luther Grimm, former chaplain-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 63....Admiral Sir Arthur Cochrane, K.C.B., 81....M. Jules Oppert, of Paris, 80.

August 22.—Alfred Waterhouse, R.A., a well-known English architect, 75....Dr. D. B. Monro, provost of Oriel, Oxford, 68....William Rininger, M.D., investigator of the symptoms and cure of consumption.

August 23.—Dr. James H. Salisbury, an investigator in the field of microscopy, 82.... Walter H. Whitten, a pioneer manufacturer of turbine water-wheels, 78.

August 24.—Ephraim A. Jacob, legal writer, 60.

August 26.-Eduardo Yero, Cuban secretary of public instruction.

August 27.-Mrs. Katherine Bailey Foot, contributor to American magazines, 63....Rev. Amos Sheffield Chesebrough, D.D., one of the oldest Congregational clergymen in Connecticut, 92.

August 28.—Ellis A. Apgar, for twenty years State superintendent of public instruction in New Jersey, 70.

August 29.-Frederick H. Rindge, philanthropist, 47....Octave A. Bullion, Confederate veteran and large cotton-gin operator....Rev. C. E. Tisdall, D.D., chancellor of Christ Church Cathedral, Dublin.

August 31.—Francisco Tamagno, Italian tenor, 56 .Ex-Lieutenant Governor Mueller, of Ohio, 83.

September 1.-Joseph O. Smith, former secretary of state of Maine, 66.

September 4.—Col. Finlay Anderson, a well-known New York journalist, 67.... Edward E. Edwards, a well-known newspaper worker of Boston, 67.... Maj.-Gen. Robert McCulloch, of the Confederate army, 85.

September 5.-Hezekiah Butterworth, author and journalist, 66....Gen. Thomas T. Crittenden, veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 77.

September 6.—Former Justice Judson S. Landon, of the New York Supreme Court, 75.

September 7.-Lieut.-Gen. A. von Boguslawski, a well-known military writer, 71.... Dr. Thomas Menees, of Tennessee, member of the Confederate Congress, 82.

September 8.—Cardinal Raphael Pierotti, 69.... Henry Slade, the Spiritualistic medium, 80.



THE LATE MAYOR PATRICK A. COLLINS, OF BOSTON.

September 12.-Gen. Lawrence Pike Graham, U.S.A. (retired), a veteran of the Seminole, Mexican, and Civil wars, 90.

September 13. - René Goblet, former president of the French council of ministers, 77 ....Brig. - Gen. George S. Weeks, U.S.A. (retired), 71.

September 14 .-Mayor Patrick A. Collins, of Boston, 61.

September 15 .-Count de Brazza, the French explorer, 53.

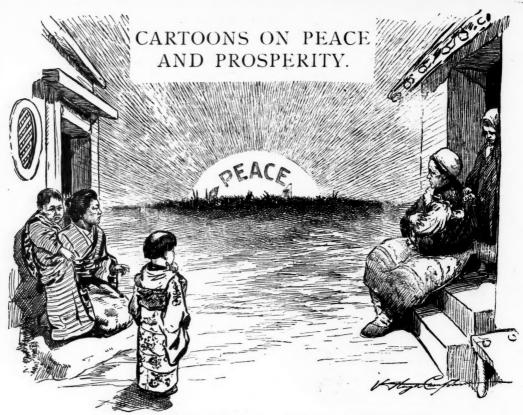
September 16.-Julian Magnus, the well-known theatrical manager, 55....L. T. Carver, the Maine State librarian, 64.

September 17.—Brig.-Gen. Daniel W. Benham, U.S.A. (retired), 68.

September 18.—George MacDonald, the Scotch novelist, 81....Gen. Isaac J. Wistar, of Philadelphia, philanthropist and scientist, 78.

September 19.-Dr. Thomas J. Barnardo, of London, founder and director of philanthropic institutions, 60.

September 20.-Adolf Hedin, "Father of the Swedish Riksdag"....Frederic Lawrence Knowles, a Boston poet, 36....Rev. Henry R. Lockwood, D.D., of Syracuse, N. Y., 62.



THE REAL BENEFICIARIES OF PEACE.-From the North American (Philadelphia).



THE FLIGHT OF THE EAGLE. (From the Inter-Ocean (Chicago).



THE RUSSIAN ARMY: "Hurrah for Rooseveltovitch!"—
(On getting news of peace, the Russian soldiers in Manchuria drank to the health of President Roosevelt.)

(From the Pioneer Press (St. Paul).



THE "BIG STICK" IN A NEV RÔLE.

UNCLE SAM (looking at the olive branches wreathing the Roosevelt club): "Well, I guess a little strenuosity is worth while in peace as well as in war."

From the Press (Philadelphia).



THE MESSENGER FROM AMERICA.

WITTE (fresh from contact with a free press among a free people): "The most profound impression I carry back to Europe is that the pen indeed is mightier than the sword,"

From the Press (Philadelphia,)



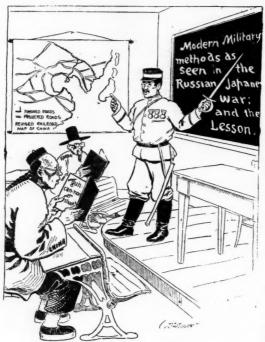
CONGRATULATIONS.
From the North American (Philadelphia).



THE LATEST ECLIPSE.
From the World (New York).



THE DEBT THAT CAN NEVER BE REPAID. From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



school is about to open in the far east.

Japan as the new teacher of modern military methods,

From the Tribune (Chicago).



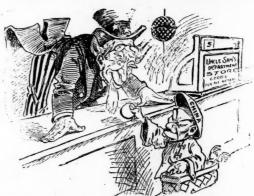
DISTANCE LENDS ENCHANTMENT TO THE NEWS.

Japan: "The Russians must be brutes."
U. S. A.: "Those Japs are just savages, after all."
Russia: "Those Americans are horribly cruel."
From the Tribune (Chicago),



THE MAN OF THE HOUR.

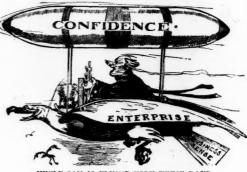
The Cuban people congratulate President Roosevelt on his success as a peacemaker.—From La Discusion (Havana).



UNCLE SAM (to China): "Why, I thought you had boy-cotted this store!"

(The Chinese Government has ordered 500,000 barrels of flour from Minneapolis mills.)

From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane).



UNCLE SAM IS FLYING HIGH THESE DAYS. From the North American (Philadelphia).



THE FARMER: "Don't look much like hard times, eh, mother?"-From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



TO MAKE HIM SAFE.

UNCLE SAM (the agent, to life insurance president): "Say, what you need, old man, is to take out a policy with me." From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



MR. W. J. BRYAN SAILS FOR EUROPE IN QUEST OF A REMEDY FOR UNCLE SAM'S CONDITION.

From the Post (Washington).



Photograph by Conners, Portsmouth

THE RUSSIAN PEACE ENVOYS AT PORTSMOUTH, WITH THEIR STAFF AND THE NEWSPAPER CORRESPONDENTS.

## THE MAKING OF A MODERN TREATY OF PEACE.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

FOR nearly two years, the world has been hearing how Russia and Japan make war. It has been a thrilling story of tremendous significance. But even more thrilling and much more significant is the story of how, at the invitation of the American President, they have at last made peace. Those who were privileged to be in the historic old American town of Portsmouth during the closing hours of the conference felt that the gathering had begun a new era in international relations, an era in which Hague tribunals and peace treaties will be more plentiful than international wars and hatreds.

Twenty-one and one-half centuries ago, an Asiatic people, the Carthaginians, vanquished the Romans, then leaders of the European world. The terms of the treaty were delivered orally on the field of battle, while the discomfited Romans passed beneath the yoke and their officers were taken prisoners and exposed to the most humiliating indignities, giving up their armor, their personal property, and even their cloaks. In the year of grace 1905 another Asiatic people, the victorious Japanese, and their vanquished European opponents made peace in a council chamber in the United States of America, ten thousand miles from the field of action. The envoys frater-

nized, and parted almost as friends. There were no brutal exactions, and the whole world agrees that the Orient has proved herself even greater in peace than she had been in war. The generous and wise policy of Japan has not only begun an era of good feeling with her former enemy, with no Alsace-Lorraine to rankle in the Russian heart, but it has also raised the whole code of international ethics. In the future, no Occidental nation will dare to be less civilized in making war or less magnanimous in making peace than Oriental Japan.

The American people and Theodore Roosevelt should be grateful to the Russo-Japanese war for one thing at least. It has furnished us as a nation, and our President as a chief magistrate, an opportunity to demonstrate, beyond the shadow of a doubt, that we are an intensely peaceloving nation, and that the man with the "big stick," the man who has been accused of ostentatious bluster,—who, we have been told, was fairly aching to embroil us with the rest of the world, —is really a peacemaker. It is probable that Theodore Roosevelt will be known in history, not for his charge up San Juan Hill, but for his brave and high-principled efforts in bringing about the peace between Russia and Japan. He

was preëminently the peacemaker of Portsmouth, but in his three appeals to the Czar and two to the Mikado there can be found no attempt to defeat justice. He waited until he could advise without injustice or offense. There is a peace of injustice,—a temporary, timid peace,—but the real peace is that for which men are willing to fight if need be. A peace which ignores the legitimate rights and the unjustified wrongs of a situation, which would set at naught in the council chamber the bloody sacrifices and heroism of the field of battle, can never be just or permanent.

The popular conception of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary meeting and bargaining over terms of peace at the conclusion of a war is really a misconception. It is on the field of battle that the terms of a peace treaty which is at all just and lasting are made. Diplomacy never yet fully settled an international problem. The brain, the physical manhood, and the national self-respect are, after all, the final deciding factors. However the envoys at Portsmouth might debate, Russia's proprietorship, interest, and leasehold in Port Arthur and the Liao Tung peninsula went to Japan during the bloody campaign, from the time that Oku's men charged up the Nanshan to the hours when Nogi's veterans took the Russian works at 203-Metre Hill. The control of Manchuria passed from Russia, not in the coun-

cil chamber at Portsmouth, but during those dramatic hours of intense world significance when Kuropátkin's legions were scattered to the winds at Liao-Yang, at Sha-ho, and at Mukden. Korea became Japanese by right of the brain of Admiral Togo and the sacrifice of his men in those marvelous naval actions from Chemulpho to Tsushima. The best part of Saghalien is again Japanese, not because the Portsmouth treaty says so, but because of the dash and efficiency of Admiral Kataoka's gunboats. Indemnity, guarantees of future lines of conduct, surrender of interned warships,-these were proper subjects for negotiation, for arbitration. But Japan's paramountcy in the Orient is an accomplished fact, not because the treaty conceded her so much, nor because the Anglo-Japanese pact gives her the support of England's naval might, but because, from that fateful day on the Yalu River to the closing hours of that other May day one year later when Rozhestvenski's armada went adrift on the rocks of Liancourt, the sons of Nippon had demonstrated their right, by body, brain, and spirit, to stand among the great powers of the earth.

#### THE MAKING OF THE TREATY.

It seems strange, but it is certainly significant of the eminent position occupied by the United States in world-affairs, that the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan should have been de-



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THE JAPANESE ENVOYS AT PORTSMOUTH, WITH THEIR STAFF AND THE NEWSPAPER CORRESPONDENTS.

liberated and signed in an American city and written in the French and English languages. The copy of the treaty of Portsmouth which Professor Martens has taken for the inspection of his Majesty the Russian Czar is written in French and English. The copy which will be handed to his Majesty the Mikado is engrossed in English and French. All other copies of the instrument, even the texts in Japanese and Russian, are, officially, translations. In case of a disagreement as to interpretation, the French text is to be the authority. Thus does the traditional language of diplomacy maintain its preëminence, hard pressed, however, by

our all-conquering English.

There were moments of great tension during the deliberations, and to the waiting world it more than once seemed as though the sessions of the conference between the Russian and the Japanese envoys were very long-drawn-out in the light of the vast interests involved, of the immense forces, ambitions, and human stakes bound up in the results, the discussions over the conference table at Portsmouth were swift, -even dramatically so. The actual story of the deliberations between the four envoys and their secretaries is not a long one. Months before, the neutral world began to discuss Japan's probable terms of peace and the extent to which Russia would concede her defeat. two empires agreed, in response to President Roosevelt's invitation, to send peace commissioners to Portsmouth, the world wondered whether Mr. Witte and Baron Rosen, Baron Komura and Mr. Takahira, were actually clothed with full powers to conclude a peace. Officially, they were so clothed with power. When the deadlock came over certain of the terms, however, it was evident that the negotiations had been taken out of the hands of the envoys, and that the parley was between St. Petersburg and Tokio, with Washington, -or, rather. Oyster Bay, -as mouthpiece for both. Baron Komura laid before Mr. Witte twelve articles embodying the terms upon which Japan offered peace. It is now an open secret that there was a thirteenth term, suppressed, it is claimed in some quarters, at the instigation of the American President, as being unjust and exorbitant.

The method of procedure was methodical and business-like. After reading the entire list of the Japanese demands, Mr. Witte agreed to a majority of them for his country, but positively declined to consider those which required the cession of territory or the payment of money. The terms were then taken up one by one, and at the end of each session the day's proceedings, embodied in a protocol, were agreed upon and

signed officially by all of the four envoys. Great care was taken in the preparation of these protocols, and, in substance, they formed the basis of the treaty. Where no agreement was possible. an article was temporarily passed by, the disagreement being recorded in the protocol of the day's proceedings. The proceedings were conducted in any language preferred by the envoys. but were translated into French for the Russians and into English for the Japanese. The sessions of the conference were, of course, secret, those present at the deliberations being only the envovs and the three secretaries of each commis-While the formal deliberations were held in the Navy Stores Building, on the government island,—which, by the way, is in Maine,—and under guard of United States marines, much of the business of the treaty-making was done in the rooms of the Hotel Wentworth, at Newcastle, N. H., where the envoys and their suites were quartered: and it was at the Wentworth. of course, that the newspaper correspondents, by the methods known to their craft, obtained the reports of the proceedings and the substance of the peace terms, which, in the words of one of the chief envoys themselves, "while not absolutely accurate, are wonderfully near being ex-It is an open secret that what we now know of the terms came almost exclusively from Russian sources. When the actual wording is known, if any corrections are to be made they will probably make Japan's case look better.

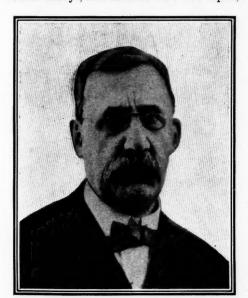
A prominent member of the Japanese staff, whose remarks were submitted to and not contradicted by an equally high authority on the other side, declared that, while the exact details of the proceedings could not be made public, there was no objection to stating that the "broad characteristics and tendencies underlying the endeavors of either side" during the debate

might be summarized as follows:

The Japanese purpose, as discerned in the twelve original proposals, was fourfold,—(1) to restore the political conditions which the treaty of Shimonoseki was intended to establish; (2) to remove or counteract the disturbing political, economic, and military factors which have come into existence since then; (3) to do away with the influence of the aggressive policy of Muraviev and Alexiev in China; and (4) to release China and Korea from the spell of Russian ascendency and restore to the Western world political and commercial rights long withheld.

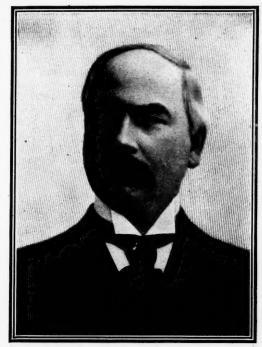
The Russian argument aimed,—(1) to prove that Russia had intended all along to restore what was not her own, but that she resented the attempt of Japan to humiliate her by compulsion; (2) she declined to permit the wording of the treaty clauses to convey the impression that Japan was dictating, while Russia was obeying; (3) instead of permitting Japan to take for herself the honor of championing China and Korea, Russia herself took their part, insisting that their international status should be fairly reckoned with, and endeavoring to revive rights of theirs which she declared Japan had violated; and (4) in declining to dispute the substance of a demand she insisted on such wording of a proposal that she should not be construed as signing away rights other than her own, or as conniving at a policy of absorption in the future which she was unable to indorse.

When the protocols had all finally been prepared, the phrasing of the treaty itself was intrusted to the two international law experts,-Prof. Theodore Martens, for Russia, and Mr. Henry W. Dennison, for Japan. The actual wording of the treaty was done chiefly in Professor Martens' room at the Hotel Wentworth. The engrossing of the document is the work of several of the secretaries (chiefly Mr. Rozhestvenski, second secretary of the Russian legation at Peking, for Russia, and Mr. Atchiai, for Japan). While the services of the expert engrosser of the United States Government were declined, the parchment used was furnished by our State Department. The completed treaty, as well as all the protocols, of course, bears the signature of the four envoys, and as there were four copies,-



MR. HENRY W. DENNISON.

(The American legal adviser of the Japanese foreign office who framed Japan's official copy of the treaty.)



PROFESSOR THEODORE MARTENS, OF ST. PETERSBURG.

(The Russian international law expert who framed the Czar's copy of the treaty.)

one in French and English for the Russians, and one in English and French for the Japanese,—each envoy signed his name four times.

#### DRAMATIC MOMENTS IN THE DEBATE.

There were two tense periods in the deliberations. The first was when, after days of discussion, Komura met Witte's final word for Russia with the magnanimous offer of the Mikado to waive indemnity and yield to Russia half of Saghalien. The days had been full of intense excitement and strain. Failure appeared inevitable. Both sides were unyielding. Then came the mysterious visits of Baron Kaneko and Baron Rosen to Oyster Bay, followed by the directions from Tokio to waive the indemnity. It was the wish of the Mikado, the Japanese said.

The orders from Tokio were that Russia's last word to President Roosevelt—"no indemnity and half of Saghalien"—was to be put forward as a Japanese proposal. What took place at this dramatic moment will never be known. The newspaper press has speculated over it, and printed more or less vivid imaginative accounts. According to the Russian and Japanese secretaries, neither side betrayed any emotion. Once outside the council chamber, the impressionable

Witte gave vent to his feelings, but the stoical Japanese face retained its Indian-like fixedness.

The other dramatic moment was at the actual signing of the document itself. It was 3:47 on the afternoon of Tuesday, September 5. Besides the principals, there were present at the signing: Assistant Secretary of State Herbert H. D. Peirce, who represented the President; Admiral Mead, commanding the navy yard; Captain Winslow, of the Mayflower; Governor MacLane, of New Hampshire; and the mayor of Portsmouth. When the four plenipotentiaries had signed their names to the French and English copies, the really impressive part of the ceremony, according to those who were favored in being present, came. No word had been spoken for ten minutes. When his signature had been fixed, Russia's senior envoy, without a word, threw his pen aside, reached across the table, and grasped Baron Komura's hand. All his confrères followed, tightly clasping one another's hands across the conference table, but without speaking. Then Baron Rosen, the junior Russian envoy, arose from his seat, and said, in French, on behalf of himself and his senior:

As plenipotentiaries of Russia we fulfill a most agreeable duty in acknowledging that in negotiations with our hitherto adversaries, and from this hour our friends, we have been dealing with true and thorough gentlemen, to whom we are happy to express our high esteem and personal regard. We earnestly hope that henceforth friendly relations between both empires will be firmly established, and we trust that his excellency Baron Komura, as minister of foreign affairs and one of the leading statesmen of his country, will apply to the strengthening of these relations the wide experience and wise statesmanship which he so conspicuously displayed during these negotiations which have been so auspiciously concluded.

Baron Komura's reply, which was in English, indicated that he shared the views of Baron Rosen entirely. It would, he declared, always be pleasant for him to recall that throughout the long and serious negotiations which they have now left behind them he and his colleague had invariably received from the Russian plenipotentiaries the highest courtesy and consideration, and finally he begged to assure their excellencies the Russian plenipotentiaries that it would be his duty as well as his great pleasure to do everything in his power to make the treaty "in fact what it professes to be in words,—a treaty of peace and amity."

#### TERMS OF THE TREATY.

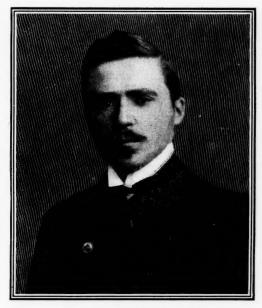
The treaty (as we know its substance from conference reports which have not been contradicted) starts out in orthodox fashion, declaring

that perpetual peace and friendship now exist between Russia and Japan, their respective sovereigns, and their respective peoples. Further, each side makes certain stipulations and concessions which settle the status of the far East for perhaps a century to come. Russia acknowledges and recognizes Japan's predominant interest and influence in Korea, agrees to with draw all her special rights from the peninsula. and each nation binds itself not to erect fortifications along the frontier, nor to make any tariff or other trade or commercial regulations injurious to the interests of the other. Russia agrees to give up her lease of the Liao-Tung peninsula, Port Arthur, Dalny, and the Elliot and Blonde islands to Japan,—the lease which she obtained from China at the close of the Chino-Japanese War. Both nations agree to evacuate Manchuria simultaneously within eighteen months after the signing of the treaty. Russia restores Manchuria to China, without reservation, and promises not to encroach on that province in the future, under any pretense, in any way, shape, or manner. In agreeing to evacuate Manchuria, Japan, for her part, agrees with Russia not to exact any special commercial privileges. Russia gives up to Japan, without any pecuniary reimbursement, the Chinese Eastern Railway from Kwang-Cheng-Tse to Port Arthur and Dalny, and, with China's consent, leases to the island empire that section of the railroad from Kwang-Cheng-Tse northward to Harbin, including the branch from Kwang-Cheng-Tse eastward to Kirin.

In her turn, Japan gives China certain rights reserved at the original cession when Russia built the railroad, embracing certain rights of eventual purchase and share in administration, including the regulation of Russian and Japanese railroad guards, which are not to exceed in number fifteen soldiers per kilometer. Russia further agrees to retrocede to Japan the southern half of the island of Saghalien, which belonged to the island empire prior to 1875, the fiftieth degree north latitude being the dividing line, but the actual boundary to be determined by a special mixed limitographic commission, composed of a Russian, a Japanese, a Frenchman, and an American. Certain stipulations as to fortification on the island of Saghalien and the mainland are also agreed upon. Rússia further concedes to Japan equal fishing rights along the Siberian coast from the Tumen River to the Bering Straits, and in the mouth of the Amur River. Russia and Japan agree to reimburse each other for the transportation and maintenance of war prisoners, according to the rulings of the Hague tribunal. The treaty further provides for a commercial agreement between Russia and Japan, on a basis of according to each the most favored nation treatment, for the regulation of Japanese consuls in Siberia, and for the regulation of the status of private property and the rights of Russian subjects in the ceded territories. It was agreed that the treaty shall be ratified within fifty days from the date of signing, the ratification to be effected through the French embassy in Tokio and the American embassy in St. Petersburg.

With the assurances that after the ratification of the treaty by the two emperors the exact terms would be made public, the newspaper correspondents,—and, through them, the entire world,—were forced to be content. The fifty days within which ratification must be accomplished will end with the 25th of October. Ratification could take place within a few days after the arrival of the Japanese copy of the treaty at Tokio, which is set for the 5th of the current month. It is possible, however, that it will be November 1 before the exact terms are made public,—if they ever are given to the world.

Were there any secret clauses in this peace pact of such tremendous world-significance? All the envoys and their suites have emphatically declared that there were not. From hints dropped by at least two of the plenipotentiaries, however, and several of the attachés, and on the authority of several writers familiar with the inner secrets of the European chancelleries, there is a growing conviction that the two empires have come to an understanding upon several matters the exact terms of which may never be known. The words spoken by Baron Komura and Baron Rosen at the final session of the conference at Portsmouth were impressive and significant beyond the mere empty formalities of post-bellum courtesy. Upon leaving New York with the Russian copy of the treaty, Professor Martens all but admitted a secret clause. Did Witte and Komura actually conclude an alliance as a complementary agreement to the treaty of peace? Or, did the Czar and the Mikado, unknown to their envoys (as a persistent, though unconfirmed, report from Japanese legations in Europe would have us believe), agree to the suggestion reported to have been made by Kaiser Wilhelm that the Czar, not the empire, should secretly pay to Japan five hundred millions of indemnity and give her a free hand in China, in return for "saving Russia's face?" This may never be known. It is a fact, however, that almost simultaneously with the publication of this rumor and the hint of Martens that there was a secret treaty (it may be to relieve the Mikado from an embarrassing situation at home)



MR. ALEXANDRE BRIANCHANINOV.

(The Russian Liberal, member of several zemstvo congresses, who represented the St. Petersburg Slovo.)

the rioting against the peace terms in Tokio practically ceased.

# THE PERSONALITIES OF THE ENVOYS.

One of the most impressive moments of the peace envoys' stay at Portsmouth was the meeting of the Russians and the Japanese at the reception the evening before the signing of the treaty. The Japanese envoys had invited the guests of the hotel to a festive occasion. Would the Russians come, it was wondered. And come they did. Headed by Witte himself, the entire suite presented themselves, and cordially grasped the hands of their hosts, the once despised "little, yellow, bumptious race." It was gratifying,—even thrilling,—to see the Russian and Japanese envoys and newspaper men hobnobbing and toasting the American President.

There will be no disputing of the fine, gratifying impression made upon the American people by the large and attractive personality of Serge Witte. A man of moods, a truly Slav character, emotional as a child, vigorous and fearless as an untaught barbarian, yet schooled in the diplomacy which is the most subtle known to history, talkative, confidential, impressive, this big, burly, blonde Russian is typical of the best that is in his race. There is the Muscovite impatience, swagger, and bluff, but also the winning manner, breadth of vision.

and responsiveness which make the Russian "intellectual" irresistible. To see him with his more than six feet and two-hundred-pound bulk standing beside the five-foot, almost feminine, stature of Baron Komura, the spectator could well imagine before him the maps of Russia and Japan. It seemed impossible to the visitor at Portsmouth to penetrate behind the courteous taciturnity of the Japanese baron. Komura, Japanese foreign minister, one of the fine examples of the Oriental mind, is a philosopher,—a lover of Emerson. One is amazed to hear him quote from memory the English and American sages. There is a certain stoic calmness, self-possession, mathematical precision, and relentless logic about the Japanese which mystifies, yet attracts. It seemed impossible to break in upon his reserve, and his smile, though kindly, was inscrutable.

In certain indefinable but powerful ways, the visitor at Portsmouth was convinced that the quality of the Japanese mentality admirably stood the test of comparison with that of the Russians. The Asiatics, however, were newer hands at the diplomatic game. They were evidently not so sure of themselves among the subtleties and intricacies of international law as were their opponents. The Russians, it cannot be denied, played their game of international finesse splendidly, and, under the leadership of Martens, more than once quoted precedents to the technical discomfiture of their opponents.

The Japanese evidently had a wholesome respect for the statecraft of the Russians, and the latter soon learned to recognize the high caliber of the men from Nippon. "Their minds," said one of the Russian envoys, "are large enough to make them real statesmen and gentlemen."

#### A GREAT PRESS TRIUMPH.

Witte's tribute to the American press, in a rather remarkable speech made after the agreement had been arrived at, was deserved by all the newspaper men who were present. The modern journal was really a revelation to the diplomats,-who are not partial to revelations of any kind. Every possible precaution and artifice hitherto found effective by statesmen to conceal results was taken, and yet daily in the journals of the world there appeared enough of the facts to elicit from the envoys or their secretaries admiring tributes. Constantly they were heard saying: "How do you do it? We are certain no one tells you. We cannot understand how you get at the facts." The original intention was to publish some time next year a sort of blue book, containing as much of the final minutes of the conference as it would be wise for the public to know. In the meantime, it was decided to issue forty or fifty word bulletins, referring by number to the articles under discussion. United States marines guarded every point of entrance to the conference building, and even passes to enter the courtyard were rarities.

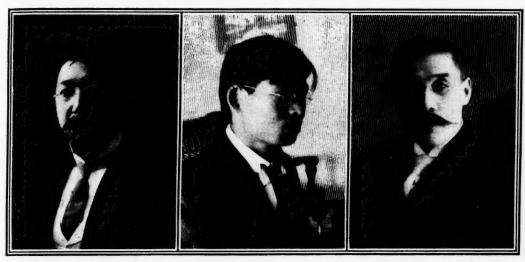


Dr. E. J. Dillon, of the London Daily Telegraph.

Dr. George Ernest Morrison, of the London Times.

Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, of the London Times.

THREE EMINENT ENGLISH JOURNALISTS AT PORTSMOUTH.



Mr. Yasukiro Ishikawa, of the Hochi Shimbun, of Tokio.

Mr. K. Kawakami, of the Asahi and the Yorodzu, of Tokio.

Mr. Masotomi Fukutomi, representing the Asahi, of Osaka.

REPRESENTATIVES OF THREE JAPANESE DAILIES AT THE PEACE CONFERENCE.

Nevertheless, the world had its story each day, and so nearly accurate in detail that there have been but few corrections. Journalists who could discuss the far-Eastern situation with the knowledge and authority of a prime minister or a secretary of state, writers who knew Russia and Japan and the United States like senators and historians, came after the news,—and they got it. There were one hundred and twenty-three "specials" at Portsmouth, Africa being the only continent not represented. The great London Times had three of its best men present.—Dr. Morrison, its Peking correspondent; Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, its representative from St. Petersburg; and George W. Smalley, its correspondent in New York. Dr. E. J. Dillon, correspondent of the Daily Telegraph at St. Petersburg; Salvatore Cortesi, representing many Italian dailies and the Associated Press at Rome; Jules Hademan, of the Matin, of Paris; E. von Gottberg, of the Berlin Lokal Anzeiger, and Otto Kahn, of the Frankfurter Zeitung; Camillo Clanfarra, of the Prensa, of Buenos Ayres; Alexandre Brianchaninov, of the Slovo, and Boris Suvorin, of the Novoye Vremya, of St. Petersburg; Rihei Onishi, of the Jiji Shimpo; Yasukiro Ishikawa, of the Hochi Shimbun; Yoshizumi Hamada, of the Kokumin Shimbun; K. K. Kawakami, of the Asahi, of Tokio, and Masotomi Fukutomi, of the Osaka Asahi,—these were some of the most eminent newspaper men from abroad.

Upon one thing all the envoys and their secretaries, and all the inhabitants of Portsmouth, were agreed, -the principals were there to make The onlookers hoped and prayed for peace. It may be safely said that there was no war party at Portsmouth. Both Serge Witte and Jutaro Komura were constant, sincere, and untiring in their efforts to bring about an agreement which would be lasting and honorable to both peoples. If the final outcome has not actually partaken of these qualities of permanence and honor, the fault can never be laid at the door of any of the envoys or their associates. In St. Petersburg, it will be claimed that the result was a diplomatic triumph for Russia; in Tokio, they will probably say that it was Japan's Throughout the United States magnanimity. and the neutral world, there is a growing impression that the happy outcome was chiefly the result of the efforts of the peacemaker with the "big stick." As in all many-sided questions, the truth lies midway between the two extremes. The treaty is, to an extent, a diplomatic triumph for Russia, but it is not another Shimonoseki for Japan. It is magnanimity on the part of Nippon, but it is also shrewd, wise statesmanship. The result is indeed a tribute to the courage of the peace-loving American President, but it is also a splendid demonstration of the power of the neutral world in its desire for peace and humanity.

# HOW ST. PETERSBURG RECEIVED THE NEWS OF PEACE.

BY W. T. STEAD.

[While Dr. E. J. Dillon, the famous correspondent who usually writes for us from St. Petersburg, was in this country with Mr. Witte and the Russian party (see Dr. Dillon's article in the Review last month on Witte's career), Mr. William T. Stead went from London to St. Petersburg in time to be at the Russian capital when the peace news was received. His opportunities for studying the Russian situation last month were of the most favorable sort, and the present article from his pen is fresh from St. Petersburg.—The Editor.]

7 HEN I woke up this morning and saw the street decorated with flags I thought that peace was being officially celebrated in this city. The Gostennor Door was decorated with a display of three flags in each window, as per regulation. The white, blue, and red flag flapped lazily from the tram-cars and fluttered feebly from the flagstaffs on the government buildings. At the street-corners, small knots of men were reading the small placard on which, under the ægis of the double-headed eagle, is printed the Czar's telegram to General Linevich announcing the conclusion of peace. Nowhere was there any demonstration of emotion, one way or the This belated display of bunting,—the merest apology for decoration,-seemed to me the irreducible minimum of official recognition that peace had been made. In this it would certainly have corresponded to the mood of the people. But on making inquiries I found that the flags were out, not for the peace, but for the Shah of Persia, who visits St. Petersburg this day. For the peace, there is not even one flag.

THE TEMPER OF THE RUSSIAN CROWD.

I went, last night, to the People's Palace, the spacious pleasure garden run on strictly temperance principles provided for the people of St. Petersburg on the other side of the Neva. There was an immense crowd. There was not a vacant seat, not even standing-room, for one in the theater; all the seats around the band-stands were occupied, and the grounds were black with the multitude. There were plenty of soldiers among those who were amusing themselves. Gendarmes and policemen were conspicuous by their absence. There must have been ten thousand people in and about the grounds, and there was an absolute absence of any outward visible emblem of authority. The price of admission is low-only five cents-and the crowd was exactly the same kind of crowd that you would expect to find in any similar pleasure resort in London or New York;—a good-humored motley company

of men and women, and young people of both sexes, who were solely intent upon having a good time. I was in and out and about the crowd for a couple of hours that Sunday night, accompanied by a friend to whom Russian is almost as a mother tongue. Nowhere was there visible and audible any sign of dissatisfaction or of delight. Opportunity was not lacking. In the great central hall the most conspicuous object was a large-scale colored map of the seat of war flanked by the latest telegrams from all parts of the world bearing upon the peace. The crowd looked up at the map. Some of them read the telegrams and then went off to the restaurants in the garden where red-frocked, white-capped waitresses flew hither and thither supplying their needs. No one whistled or groaned or uttered a word. Nor did their faces display any emotion beyond that of a very slight interest of curiosity.

But we were soon to have a much more crucial test of the temper of the crowd. About nine o'clock, the programme announced, there would be an open-air display of stereopticon pictures of the war. Here in the semi-darkness,for the electric arc lamps are not too numerous and too much light would have spoiled the effect of the pictures,-stood a crowd of four or five thousand Russians. No circumstances could be more favorable for the free display of whatever feeling swayed the crowd. A lecturer with stentorian voice explained each picture as it was thrown upon the screen. The crowd applauded freely, and was as often silent. The first picture shown was the most popular. It was the portrait of Admiral Makaroff, who lost his life when his flagship was blown up at the very beginning of the war. He was instantly recognized and loudly cheered. There was considerable cheering for Verestchagin, the painter, who perished with Makaroff. When the portrait of General Linevich was shown there was a faint, half-subdued murmur of applause. It was followed by the portrait of General Kuropátkin. There was not a single cheer. A boy near me whistled.

But no other sound broke the silence. The crowd looked at their general with icy stillness. The hero of so many masterly retreats excited no enthusiasm, evoked no gratitude. Then followed some pictures of incidents of the war which were followed with keen interest, but which elicited little remark. The lecturer made one observation, in the course of his explanations, which possessed a certain tragic-comic pathos of its own. After describing the heroism of the Russian soldiers,-which, indeed, cannot be too highly praised,—he assured his hearers that "if the Japanese had not been in such a hurry to make peace General Linevich and his men would have given them a tremendous thrashing." The crowd received this gloss upon the peace negotiations with stolid indifference. Possibly this may come to be accepted as the popular legend. It is near enough the belief of many well-informed persons to have a chance of general currency.

#### THE LACK OF ENTHUSIASM.

There are only two views about peace among the Russians who read the papers,—a very small minority of the nation. There are those who approve of the peace, but who hate it as a dire but inevitable necessity. There are the others who hate it, and who say that it was not necessarv, and that Russia has been tricked and jostled into a humiliating peace to please the Jews and the Japanese, who have found in the American President their most obliging instrument. Under such circumstances, it is impossible to expect any popular demonstration of enthusiasm. In St. Petersburg we in vain try to raise our spirits by dwelling upon the diplomatic victory of Mr. Witte. "So they think that Witte has achieved a victory, do they?" said a Russian lady of distinguished family.

It seems to me very vulgar to attach so much importance to mere money. We have lost everything,—Port Arthur, Korea, the railway, half of Saghalien, all our navy, our prestige, our moral dignity before the world, and you think that we ought to be consoled because we have not also to pay some money! We are not all Jews, but you would almost think so to see what is said in London and in New York. To us, money is nothing; nothing at all in comparison with honor. It was a stupidity, this war,—nay, a crime,—but we have come out of it even more foolishly than we allowed ourselves to be dragged into it. Better have fought on two, three, or four years than to consent to such a humiliation.

Another Russian who plays an important and useful part in the politics of the empire to whom I tendered my congratulations took another point of view, but one equally unsatisfactory to Russian amour propre. He said:

Alas! the Japanese have won all the honors, both of war and of peace. Now I see that the Japanese are a really great and noble nation. They have not only defeated our armies and destroyed our navy, but in giving up their demand for the indemnity in order to secure peace they have gained a moral victory as great as any of their victories in the war. I admire the magnanimity and the courage of the Mikado. Oh, yes, this last is the most famous of all their victories. Alike in peace and in war the Japanese have beaten us.

#### RUSSIAN EXPLANATION OF JAPAN'S COURSE.

There is therefore no enthusiasm for the peace. But neither is there, on the other hand, any disposition to resent the decision taken by the Emperor. The war is over, and there is a sigh of relief even from those who protest most energetically that they are in favor of continuing the war to the bitter end. Many explanations are given to account for the extraordinary and utterly unexpected renunciation by the Japanese. One report, which I heard to-day, was that the British Government, having signed the new treaty with Japan, had compelled its ally to desist from persisting in carrying on the war. Another story has it that it is all the fault of the financiers, who were alarmed lest their Japanese investments were in danger. But the best informed lay all the blame,-which ought rather to be regarded as the highest praise,upon President Roosevelt. The sudden apparition of America, not merely as a great power, but as the greatest of the great powers, has disconcerted the old-world diplomatists not a little. Those who have got the Jew on the brain assure me confidently that the President is himself a Jew, his real name being Rosenfelt, and that he has been acting entirely at the bidding of the cosmopolitan race whose scepter is finance. Others who are nearer headquarters see in his action the reflex of the alarm with which the advent of Japan as the dominant naval power of the Pacific naturally inspires the people of the United States.

A Russian ambassador said to me, before the conference met at Portsmouth:

The affair of the indemnity is far more the affair of the Americans and the British than of the Russians. For us it would be cheaper to pay the indemnity than to continue the war. Nor does it matter to us that the Japanese would use the indemnity to build a new gigantic fleet which would make them the mistress of the Pacific. We are out of it. The war has at least taught us one thing, and that is that a weaker fleet is a hostage in the hand of the power that has the stronger fleet. Not for twenty years can we even dream of contesting with Japan the empire of the Pacific. But with the Americans and the British it is a very different thing. They cannot contemplate with equanimity the creation of a Japanese navy so strong as to make Japan

the dominant naval power on the sea which they had regarded as their own domain.

What, then, is more obvious to those who take this view than that the President was acting in the interest of the English-speaking powers in compelling Japan to abandon her claim for money which if it had been paid would have been spent in enabling Japan to annex the Philippines and compel the Australians to allow the Japanese to colonize Queensland?

#### ADMIRATION OF THE JAPANESE.

The longer heads among the Russian statesmen see in the action of Japan the shrewd policy which led Prince Bismarck, after the Seven Weeks' War, to make peace with Russia on terms which render possible at no distant date the establishment of an entente cordiale, if not an actual alliance, between the late foes. Japan offered Russia the alliance through Marquis Ito before she made the alliance with England. The offer was rejected, from a misapprehension of the fighting strength of Japan. It would not be rejected if the offer were renewed. If the Marquis Ito had been sent to Portsmouth the opinion is confidently expressed that Mr. Witte would have arranged with him a Russo-Japanese alliance. Certainly, there is no bitter feeling against Japan. At the Narodi Dom there was not the slightest manifestation of animosity to be seen in the great crowd when the portraits of the Mikado and his family were thrown upon the screen. There is even a frank admiration expressed at the skill and courage of the Japanese. Our soldiers were as good as theirs, but their generals were better and there were more of them. "They have beaten us because we deserved to be beaten. We had now the first chance during the war of meeting them on equal terms. But we have forborne taking advantage of our improved position and they have given up the indemnity. Now, therefore, let us be good friends." So say many Russians. Of the feeling which has always prevailed in Russia against the Turks, and latterly against the English and the Germans, there is no trace in the Russian sentiment concerning the Japanese.

#### THE WORK OF AMBASSADOR MEYER.

If the first honor of securing the end of the war belongs to President Roosevelt, and the second place to the Mikado, the next place belongs to the Czar and to Mr. Meyer, the American ambassador at St. Petersburg. If the difficult and delicate negotiations necessary before the conference and in its final stages had been in other hands than those of a monarch as intelligent, as cool and self-possessed, as Nicho-

las II., or to an ambassador less skillful, less resolute, and less diplomatic than Mr. Meyer, the war would still be raging. Fortunately, Nicholas II. acted as his own foreign minister, and, not less fortunately, Mr. Meyer had been transferred to St. Petersburg from Rome in time for him to feel his feet before the crisis had to be dealt with. In dealing with the Russian foreign office there were delays and difficulties. The Emperor no sooner was apprised of President Roosevelt's appeal than he brushed all obstacles to one side and received Mr. Meyer on the Emperor's birthday, -a thing which horrified officialdom declared to be absolutely impossible and unprecedented. The Emperor made his own precedents, and the conference was the re-

He saw the ambassador at once, discussed the matter with him fully, assented to the proposal, and from that moment until peace was signed their personal relations were able to stand the strain of all opposition.

#### A REVELATION OF THE CZAR'S PERSONALITY.

For years past I have stood almost alone in maintaining that the Czar was a man of great intelligence, of keen appreciation, and intensely conscientious. It is true that I had reasons for forming a judgment, as I have had the honor to meet the Emperor on three occasions in private, and that is an advantage which most of those who abuse him have not enjoyed. Count Tolstoi, I see in his latest outpouring, actually declares that he knows that Nicholas II. is a most commonplace man, standing lower than the average level, coarsely superstitious and unenlightened. But Count Tolstoi has never met the Emperor. He knows nothing about him, except from hear-If he had met him he would have been the first to admit that he had calumniated his sover-The late Mr. F. W. Holls, who was received by the Emperor after the Hague Conference, told me that he was astounded to find the Czar so intelligent and cultured a man. Count Heyden, who formed one of the deputation that recently waited upon the Emperor with the very plain-spoken addresses from the zemstvos and the marechals de noblesse, has made no secret of his surprise on meeting the Czar to find him so intelligent, so quick, so sympathetic, and so willing to hear plain truths. An English military man who dined at Peterhof last week told me that in spite of all I had told him the conversation of Nicholas II. was to him a positive reve-"I had no idea that he was such a lation. A similar revelation awaited the American ambassador when he first met the Emperor at close quarters. He found himself face to

face with a sovereign who was, in the first place, a thorough gentleman, and therefore a man of his word, who spoke simply, clearly, and frankly as man to man. In the second place, instead of finding the weak, nervous, irritable creature broken down by threats of assassination, menace of revolution, and the terrible disasters of war, he found a man in perfect health, whose composure was absolute, who faced the situation like a statesman, with calm, clear common sense. And in the third place, he found a monarch who reverenced his conscience as his king, and who without phrases or protestations was evidently only afraid of one thing,—of doing anything that he felt was false to his duty or dishonorable to his country.

### THE ARGUMENT OVER SAGHALIEN.

It is therefore no wonder that when Mr. Meyer came into close personal touch with such a sovereign that all the efforts of the enemies of peace came to naught. What the Czar said at the first interview remained his word to the last. From the beginning, he never wavered. He desired peace. He would make sacrifices for peace. But he would not buy peace by paying blackmail, nor would he surrender one verst of Russian land. To that he remained faithful to the end.

The conviction that he could not, without violating his sacred duty to the nation whose throne he occupies, surrender an inch of Russian territory would have proved an insuperable obstacle to peace if it had not been surmounted by the ingenuity and resource of the American ambassador. It is not too much to say that the peace of the world hung in the balance during the two hours in which the Emperor and the ambassador discussed, face to face, alone, the question of the cession of the southern half of the island of Saghalien. The Emperor had solemnly and publicly declared that he would cede no Russian territory. The Japanese, it was known, regarded the cession of southern Saghalien as a sine qua non. The question of how this gulf between the two was to be bridged seemed for some time insoluble.

How the solution was discovered and by what arguments the Czar was finally convinced that southern Saghalien could be ceded without infringing his public pledge will remain a secret known only to the ambassador and the President. But it is probable that the ambassador pointed out to the Emperor that southern Saghalien formed no integral part of the Russian Empire. It stood in the same category as Dalny and Port Arthur, a possession quite recently acquired,

which had never acquired the same long established status of other regular Russian provinces. It had been claimed by the Japanese from of old. They had reluctantly recognized Russia's title to it in 1895. They had now won it back by right of conquest. Port Arthur and Dalny had been renounced. Why not admit the application of the same principle to southern Saghalien? It was not a case of cession, but rather one of retrocession.

Another argument was obviously supplied by the force of things. Saghalien, being an island, was always at the mercy of the power that commanded the sea. Russia, so long as Japan had the superior navy, could only hold Saghalien on sufferance. Nor less obvious was the absurdity of waging a tremendous war, with all its measureless possibilities of danger, for one end of an almost uninhabited island which was of no military or strategic value. The plea that it commanded the straits was easily parried by the suggestion that its coasts should not be fortified.

# THE CZAR'S ESTEEM OF THE AMERICAN AMBASSADOR.

By some such arguments as these, we may depend upon it, the consent of the Emperor was won to the one article in the treaty of peace which rankles in the Russian heart. Whether this speculation be correct or not, the fact is indisputable. The consent was won, and, as the result proved, peace was secured. The most gratifying thing about the whole business is that when all was over the good relations between the sovereign and the ambassador, instead of having been impaired by the strain, became more cordial than ever. The Emperor assured a friend of mine of the very high esteem in which he had learned to hold Mr. Meyer, and that his esteem was accompanied by a real personal liking. Official testimony to the fact is no doubt ample enough, but this simple expression of affectionate regard, uttered over the dinner-table, weighs with me much more than all the felicitations of the chancelleries.

Such a result is in the highest degree satisfactory, not only to Mr. Meyer personally, although it falls to the lot of few ambassadors to achieve so great a success, but also to the American nation, which he so worthily represents. It bodes well for the future relations between the Russian Empire and the American republic that at the beginning of a new era of prosperity and peace such excellent personal relations should have been established between the ambassador and the sovereign to whom he is accredited.

# JAPAN'S ELDER STATESMEN AND THE PEACE.

# BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE.

[The following article presents a view of the peace of Portsmouth and of Japanese responsibility for that peace which is undoubtedly held by thousands of patriotic Japanese to-day.—The Editor.]

FTER eighteen months of war, at the conference at Portsmouth, Nippon has been disgraced by a defeat more serious, more far-reaching in consequences, than the disgrace of ten years ago. At the close of the Chino-Nippon War, a few hundred men in our army and navy put on record with their own blood their protest against the dishonorable peace. They committed seppuku. The army and navy of Nippon are like the swords they carry,—they cut splendidly, but they do not, to accommodate your convenience, become suddenly dull when you wish to toy with them. The nation, however, then showed no sign of protest. The humiliation was not quite vital enough. There were other things to absorb the people's attention. But now, when we have the news of the killings on the streets of Tokio, let us see what happens to-day. On August 28, the Jiji Shimpo, which usually echoes the opinions of the thinking half of the nation, said, in a leading editorial:

Mouths and tongues are of use no longer. Our envoys should break off the pourparlers, shake their sleeves, and begin their homeward journey. . . . There was a time when we believed in the success of the conference, and the reasons for our faith were two. One was the exceeding moderateness of our demands,-much more moderate than most of us had dreamed, -so moderate that there was no little disappointment throughout our country, so moderate that we could not fancy our enemy rejecting it. The second reason was the fact that the persistent manner in which the Russian envoy, all along his way from Europe, had kept saying that a dishonorable peace would not be accepted by him or by Russia, thus betraying his evident expectation of a large demand on the part of Nippon. We naturally supposed that the Russians were quite as surprised at the modesty of our demands as were we of Nippon. We supposed, also, that they would lose no time in concluding peace upon our terms.

Other journals throughout the island empire, differing in policy and political creed in a thousand ways from the Jiji, were of the same opin-When the ridiculous disaster of our diplomacy at Portsmouth was made known there was only one newspaper in the whole realm of Nippon that enjoyed the distinction of looking upon the situation as other than a defeat. The Kokumin thought it a rather happy and satisfactory ending, but the Kokumin is the organ of the government; to it is denied the freedom and privilege of having a mind of its own,-all of which goes to show pretty pointedly what the

people of Nippon think on the subject. What the censored dispatch from Tokio to the Western press is pleased to call a "riot" in Tokio, Kobé, Osaka, Yokehama, and a number of other cities is a vastly different affair from the street disorders of the civilized West. The people of Nippon do not take the trouble to bother the police and their government just for the fun of the thing or for the accommodation of the yellow journals. Rioting is very rare in Nippon. When it does happen, it means something very serious. Fifty years ago, it meant the restoration to power of the present imperial house.

The story of the defeat at Portsmouth, heartrending as it is to loyal Nippon, is also the story of the passing of the Elder Statesmen from the council chamber of our state, and in

this it is a story of comfort.

What is the significance of the destruction, in Kobé, of the statue of Marquis Ito Hirobumi?

One wonders that this Marquis Ito, statesman known much better abroad than at home, failed to see, ten years ago, when he won all the plaudits of the West (always remarkable for its ignorance of the East) and none at home, that he was one of the men of Yesterday, that with us a new day called for a race of men of itself. If the report of the meddling by the Elder Statesmen with the peace negotiations at Portsmouth be correct, he certainly did not see. But, you will say, if Marquis Ito and the rest of the Elder Statesmen are figures of Yesterday, how comes it that his Majesty the Emperor so frequently acts upon the advice of these statesmen. Is not your Emperor the greatest of the great in your country? To that we answer: With all his sacredness and wisdom, it must be admitted that his Majesty the Emperor of Nippon is still human.

In his younger days, when he ascended the throne, he came to know a number of young men. He has never,—gracious monarch that he is,-forgotten for a moment with what devotion they served the imperial cause, with what Titanic efforts they brought back the throne of the imperial house to power. The real giant builders of his throne are no more. There remain with him, however, men who had known the great dead, who had served him and their country in a humbler capacity. These are the Elder Statesmen of to-day. Moreover, the Em-



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

MARQUIS ITO HIROBUMI.

peror was a mere youth when he ascended the august throne of his father. The Elder Statesmen of to-day were not very much older than The Emperor waxed in years, in power, and in wisdom. So did the New Nippon, and so did the men whom we to-day know as the Elder Statesmen. They grew together. As the years came and went, in the going they took away most of the builders of New Nippon one by one. Then the men who were in the humbler services rose to power. And so it came to pass that in the last twenty years his majesty came into almost constant touch with Ito, Yamagata, Matsukata, and Inoué. The state was still passing through a formative era. There were many troublous days, and, naturally, the trials of state suffered together brought all these men into closer touch. There sprang up between his majesty and these statesmen a tie that is much stronger than that of blood. His majesty found it always pleasant, and often profitable, to consult them, and he many times acted upon their views and upon the facts which they marshaled before his august eyes. In their day, they served their imperial master and their country most admirably. Is it strange or unnatural that his majesty should confide in them to-day? We who have an undying, unswerving, faith in the greatness of his majesty, who believe implicitly in his sovereign wisdom,-we, too, remember that he is only human, after all. No being other than a god can be expected to arrive at a good and correct judgment upon an affair so tangled as the final adjustment of the peace of the far East,—if he have only incorrect and incomplete data. To us, his people, he has given so many examples of the loftiness of his vision and his judgment that there is no room left to question either. When his cabinet and privy council are made up of men thoroughly competent to furnish his majesty with ample and complete data, history has yet to record a single instance in which the faith of his people has been disappointed. With us, the Emperor is always above criticism, above reproach. It all depends upon the correctness and fullness of the data presented to his majesty. But the cabinet and the councilors have very often been at fault.

Ten years ago, the name of Marquis Ito was very much before the world in connection with the Chino-Nippon War. In some quarters, outside of Nippon, it has come to be the habit of talking about this war as though it had been the personal property of Marquis Ito. The army and the navy did wonders, but their work was discounted somewhat because they fought against Chinamen. At Shimonoseki there was a bit of admirable diplomatic work accomplished. The fact that our foreign office was then under the guidance of Count Mutsu is not remembered in the West. The Occident has ears for the name of Marquis Ito only. When the defeat of our diplomacy involved us with dishonor the West credited the accomplishment to Marquis Ito. The West was correct. The amazing thing was that this same West could find in this humiliation a vast deal of wisdom. As if the triple alliance of that day could have carried out its threat. As if these three wise powers,-very wise to their own self-interests, -could afford to play into the hands of Great Britain to the appalling extent of risking a war in far-Eastern waters!

Neither Ito nor Inoué, neither Matsukata nor Yamagata, can claim the distinction of being the maker of the New Nippon. That honor belongs to three great men, chiefly,—Saigo, Kido, and Okubo, and partially to Prince Iwakura and Prince Sanjo. The Elder Statesmen who survive were their clerks and assistants. Those were the days of great things. These men knew the giants—the master creators; they worked under their guidance, and succeeded in weaving for themselves a halo out of the reflections of the greater lights. The Elder Statesmen, who have accomplished many good and profitable works for their country, are gifted men of ability—nothing more.

The schoolbooks of the West would have us believe that Marquis Ito is the author of the constitution of Nippon. The West believes this, and Marquis Ito appears to have convinced himself that this is the truth. Perhaps, however, the following information, threadbare to the eye and ear of Nippon, may be news to

Americans:

It was in the early days of the year 1868, the birth-year of the New Nippon. The great Okubo memorialized the throne. He hailed the coming of the new day for the land, and prayed the imperial master of Nippon that from that day on the people might be permitted to enjoy a more intimate association with the sacred personality and the gracious wisdom of the sovereign and with the affairs of state. On the fourteenth day of March of that year, not many days after the memorial of Okubo had been presented, his majesty stood in the historic palace of Nijo, in the city of Kioto, and declared, under oath, to the assembled multitude:

1. Public meetings shall be organized and administrative affairs shall be decided by general deliberation.

2. Governors and governed shall devote themselves to the good of the nation.

 All the civil and military officials shall endeavor to encourage individual industries in all classes, and to call forth their active characteristics.

4. The unwise defective customs hitherto prevailing shall be corrected.

5. Useful knowledge shall be introduced from the outside world, and thus the foundations of the empire shall be amplified.

The Emperor who spoke these oracular sentences was an Oriental despot of sixteen years of age, literally a son of Heaven in the eyes of his people. Behind him were the great figures of Okubo, Kido, Saigo, and Goto. As to Ito and Inoué, we do not know where they were. The work of Count Itagaki, the apostle of popular rights and individual liberty, has shaped the model for the constitution of Nippon, but the Five Sacred Oaths have passed into history and are really the foundations upon which many scholars, secretaries, and clerks have built the constitution of the present Nippon. Marquis Ito was the author of this immortal work in the same way that Boswell was the author of the famous "Life of Dr. Johnson."

To stand on the crater of a volcano of which the fires were the passions and dreams of a nation passing from death into a new-born life, a nation blinded by the very light, dazed and groping its way like a man struck by noon in a midnight hour, to read in the future through the blaze of light, and to map out wisely the future of a people,—that is the work of a seer. This was the work of Okubo. It was quite different from the work of Ito. The compass had been set, and the chart all mapped out, and then Marquis Ito was able to stand at the helm of the ship of state.

It is a good and gracious thing to grow old in a good and great work. Too often, however, is To-day burdened with the dead of Yesterday. Those who belong to Yesterday do not always remember that they are dead. There is the pity of it. But when the virtue of Yesterday turns out to be the curse of To-day,—this is the story of the Elder Statesmen of Nippon.



SIR CASPAR PURDON CLARKE, THE NEW DIRECTOR OF THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.

# A NEW ERA FOR THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.\*

BY CHARLES DE KAY.

[About the middle of October, Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, formerly director of the South Kensington Art Museum, London, assumes the directorship of the Metropolitan Museum of Art. This will mean a new régime for New York's famous art collection, as Mr. De Kay clearly shows in the following pages.—The Editor.]

THE evolution of a great museum is in itself a thing to watch with interest, merely for the spectacle, as the objects it contains increase, as gallery is added to gallery, wing to central edifice, and as through the constant necessity of rearranging exhibits a more orderly and comprehensive sequence is impressed on the whole. This, too, quite apart from the purpose of a museum in its function as an aid to education. It makes wide sections of the public acquainted with the arts of other lands and vanished civilizations, teaches artisans the forms and methods employed by modern, old, and ancient men to produce a given effect, suggests to artists

new combinations of old ideas, and communicates to inventive minds the spark that may set them in creative motion. Certain marbles on the Parthenon at Athens brought by Lord Elgin to London which at last, after a campaign of detraction, found a permanent home in the British Museum furnished the late George Frederick Watts with the keynote of his composition in painting and of his style in sculpture. The works of Michael Angelo preserved in Florence and Rome have influenced profoundly many sculptors and painters, such as Meunier in Brussels and Auguste Rodin in Paris. Portraits by Velasquez and Ter Borch have started Manet and Whistler along their artistic careers, the one by his distinction and simplicity in the use of color, the other by his marvelous technical skill.

<sup>\*</sup>The illustrations with this article are from photographs by Charles Balliard, the official photographer at the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

When Prince Albert laid at South Kensington the foundation of what is now the Victoria and Albert Institute, who would have imagined that the close of the century would find London endowed with the grand art palace which has done so much to raise craftsmen's standards in the British Empire? South Kensington Museum, as it is still called in the vernacular, contains more of the art of India than India itself, gives one an oversight of Italian renaissance as scarcely an Italian museum can offer, presents the arts of Asia, Africa, and Europe in sequence of centuries, and supplies an endless variety of objects to the artisans and art students who flock to London for education. Compared with the South Kensington the best equipped of American museums is only a beginning. The emigration of the chief director of that museum to New York marks a determination to place the Metropolitan at the head of a truly national plan for the encouragement of the study of art in its broadest sense.

The Metropolitan is only on the threshold of its career. Those who may have expected complete efficiency from this museum in the short term of its existence must have believed in miracles, and certainly were not aware of the difficulties under which its board of trustees labored to make ends meet. Unlike the South Kensington it began in private initiative; and although a site and a building were provided by the city, the larger the edifice became, and the more extended and valuable the collections grew, the heavier weighed the expenses for conducting the museum. Observe that the word mu-

seum has taken on the meaning of a place where works of art are preserved for inspection-a kind of art cemetery. London had the British, the Soane, and the Royal Architectural museums, as well as the National Gallery of Paintings, when the South Kensington was started, while New York had none of these institutions when the Metropolitan was founded. In the endeavor to supply the absence of these diversified museums the Metropolitan necessarily scattered its energy, and at one time, for a term of years, attempted to maintain an art school; all this without an endowment, relying on the slender income from entrance fees on the days when the public was not admitted free of charge, the annual dues of associate members, and the generosity of the trustees when confronted by the inevitable deficit. That the collections grew notwithstanding was due to the generosity of donors. But now the income from the princely bequest of Mr. Rogers enables the museum to purchase on its own account, and no longer leaves its enlargement to the uncertainty of donations.

All this does not solve, however, the problem of running expenses and of salaries for competent curators of the different sections into which the collections naturally fall, the wages of guards and employees, and the costs which the mere maintenance of edifice and collections entail. What the Metropolitan needs is another Rogers to bequeath a huge sum the income of which shall be applied to the costs of maintenance. Could this be secured, the museum might assume at once that lead among institutions of the kind which is proper to so large a community.



CENTRAL PORTION OF THE MUSEUM BUILDING, AROUND WHICH THE LARGE RECTANGLE OF STONE IS CLOSING.

(On the left is "Cleopatra's Needle," brought by Commander Gorringe from Egypt.)

The Metropolitan has been fortunate in its presidents. Messrs. John Taylor Johnston, Henry G. Marquand, and Frederick W. Rhinelander were no figureheads. Each was a lover of art and a collector, and each gave as much care and time to the management of the museum as to his own private affairs. Messrs. Johnston and Marquand were business men, and although the late Mr. Rhinelander had little training in affairs, his devotion to the business of the museum was incessant. He worked early and late, and perhaps it was his excessive conscientiousness, urging him on to more labor than his health could bear, that shortened his life; at least, it was the opinion of those who saw much of him that he was undertaking more of the drudgery of routine work as president than was safe. It is scarcely necessary to remind readers of the splendid gifts to the museum made by President Marquand—the gallery of old masters which bears his name, the great terra-cotta bas-relief by one of the Della Robbias, and many other exhibits of great value are

witnesses to the lively interest he took in the collections, and as monuments to his generosity and

public spirit.

Not less fortunate is the museum in the new president, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, who as a collector of rare porcelains, tapestries, bronzes, and paintings by the great masters of the past recalls the amateurs of the age of Augustus. Long ago the museum received from Mr. Morgan most valuable gifts of Oriental porcelains and ancient gold-work. Trained by his long residence abroad in the difficult art of selecting the fine from the mass of base art with which Europe abounds, and accustomed to the tricks by which falsifiers try to delude purchasers,—a sufferer now and then, as all collectors must be, from the wiles of the fabricator of antiques,—Mr. Morgan steps into the presidency of the Metropolitan prepared as few men are to exercise the

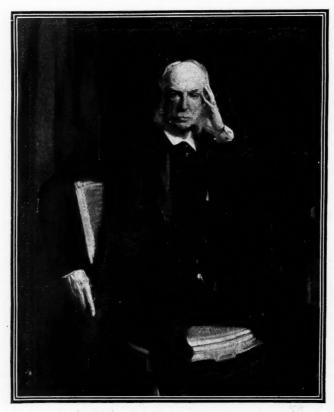


JOHN TAYLOR JOHNSTON, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE MUSEUM.
(From the oil painting by Bonnat.)

office with the knowledge acquired during a life spent in collecting, and equipped, besides, with the natural taste of a connoisseur.

It is he who has selected the new director of the Metropolitan in the person of Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, the late general manager of the museum at South Kensington, with whose attainments and merits he has been long familiar. With the presidency of Mr. Morgan and the advent of the new director the Metropolitan has begun another era, which is likely to differ as greatly from the period recently completed as New York of the coming century differs from New York of the last.

Sir Purdon Clarke being the choice of the new president, it is to be expected that he will have a freer hand than the late Mr. di Cesnola; and since he has grown up with the South Kensington Museum and seen it develop into a mighty



HENRY G. MARQUAND, BY JOHN S. SARGENT.

(Presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art by a number of gentlemen. It now hangs in the Marquand Room.)

force for the betterment of British arts and crafts, he can scarcely fail to apply what he has learned of the needs and proper functions of a museum to his new charge. The personality of a man in a place of such responsibility is naturally of great importance, for the work of a director is very complex, and by no means demands executive ability alone, nor expert knowledge in various branches of the arts, but includes certain personal qualities which assist very materially the director in his contact with the trustees and subordinates in the museum, and with the great social world round about. Indeed, one can imagine a collection so large that its management requires an executive head too busy to do more than attend to the running of the museum, one who has to leave the expert's work to the curators of the several departments, and for his part attend to the business side alone.

Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke was not born in Ireland for nothing; he has the social gift that

commonly marks, whatever his original stock or descent, the man who happens to have the "ould sod" under him when first he stands upon his feet. He possesses the vein of humor that saves an official from the immovable mask of the Philistine and permits mere civilians to have their own opinions, even as to a work of art, without making them feel that they have trespassed on official ground. In certain branches of art he is regarded as an expert,as for example architecture, to the study of which he devoted the early years of his life; objects of the Italian renaissance, and modern and ancient Oriental art works, which he has studied in India as well as in all the public and private collections of Europe and America.

His long voyages in search of objects to fill the gaps in the remarkable collections of the South Kensington have prepared him in the best way to understand the diference between one object actually of a given period and another made at a much later date in slavish imitation of the old. Such distinctions are of importance to museums, because many who consult the exhibits are in search of authentic documents or are following out some comparative study, establishing some theory or combating some error, and need, before everything

else, the closest approach to exactness that is possible. It is not beauty that forms the controlling influence in the acquisition of exhibits for a museum,—history and science are of greater importance. Unfortunately, the tendency in all museums is to forget, under the rightful claims of science and history, that beauty also has a right to be heard. This is one of the dangers that buyers for museums run. Not having beauty always before them as the first consideration, they gradually become dulled on that side and lose too much their delicacy of perception as regards pure charm and loveliness. The fact is that they are expected to cater to everybody's taste.

The student of the history of art, the archaedogist and ethnologist, find many hideous things attractive, owing to all sorts of considerations foreign to the æsthetic sense, but these leave the worshiper of beauty, who has no such thoughts, more than indifferent; he is pained, and his senses are outraged, by the spectacle. It is then that we are likely to hear that familiar exclamation, "And they call this a museum of art!"

One may say of Sir Purdon Clarke that his life as purveyor of exhibits to the South Kensington has not made of him a scientific Philistine, has not extinguished in him the sense of what is beautiful by too great stress laid on what is useful to a well-equipped museum. Be it a freshness of spirit inborn, or the liveliness of mind which is won by travels conducted with a purpose, he belongs to the receptive persons whose minds have not fallen into a rut. From sheer weariness, some people, artists as well as laymen, take their refuge in dogmas of art as others do in those of religion and fence in their feelings against any impression outside of certain categories of thought. The new director of the Metropolitan has escaped this pitfall. He has the open mind and resilience of spirit that fit him to undertake a fresh venture under conditions entirely different from those to which he has been accustomed. He has the polish of the man of the world, and the wisdom not to allow himself to be irritated by the thousand and one happenings which occur to a person in charge of a public or semi-public office. Such a man the Metropolitan needs. It is almost incredible what propositions the director of a great museum receives from persons who misunderstand completely the functions of such an institute.

The Metropolitan differs in many respects from the museums under governmental control in Europe. The site in Central Park and the building itself belong to the city, but the exhibits are the property of a private corporation. This state of affairs secures the museum from dangerous attentions on the part of politicians who might otherwise dictate to the management and stuff the museum with officials at their own sweet will, without regard to their fitness for the positions. On the other hand, the museum has no direct connection with the system of public education in the State; neither has it relations with art museums, galleries, and schools in other cities of the Union. A friendly connection exists with Columbia University by way of lectures on art given at the museum by professors of the university; but these are only tentative. Therefore, such a position as the South Kensington holds with respect to art schools and museums

in other parts of England and Scotland, Wales, and Ireland can scarcely be imagined for the Metro-

politan Museum.

The South Kensington is essentially a working museum under the British Government. It lends exhibits to provincial centers and establishes prizes for art students who come up to London from many provincial art schools. It took up a burden which the Royal Academy and its art school could not carry through, if the academicians had been willing to attempt it, and its place in the general scheme of education is As compared with the South Kensington, our museum finds itself in a totally different position toward the museums, art galleries, and art schools of this country. In time, perhaps, reciprocal relations might be established with certain large cities like Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Buf-



GEORGE H. STORY, N.A.

(Gurator of paintings and acting director in the absence of Sir Purdon Clarke.)



PORTRAIT OF A GENTLEMAN BY REMBRANDT VAN RYN.
(Gift of the late Henry G. Marquand.)

falo, and St. Louis, which have the necessary buildings for exhibitions, and the art schools whose pupils might value honors given by the Metropolitan. Something in this nature is already carried on in a small way by the New York School of Art, which offers scholarships to selected pupils in art schools of other cities, enabling the winners to spend one or more winters at the New York school without charge for instruction. It is possible that by some general system and by working along these lines the Metropolitan might carry its influence and extend the usefulness of its collections to art students far beyond the borders of the State.

One difficulty in carrying out even partially a scheme like that in England is the question of distance between New York and most of those centers where interest in art is sufficiently strong to form schools and support galleries; another is the spirit of State pride, which will oppose anything that looks like recognizing New York as the general art center. In France and England there never has been any question of the primacy of Paris and London in such matters, and very naturally, since Paris and London are not only the greatest and wealthiest cities of the two countries, but the seats of national government. Colonial jealousies frustrated the plan

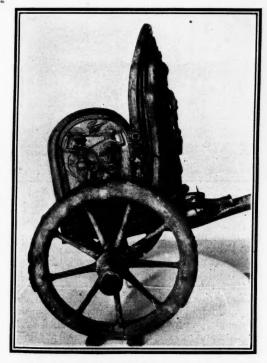
of making New York the capital of the Union. and State jealousy works relentlessly and with ever fresh vim to diminish in all possible ways the "surquedry" of New York. Boston, Chicago, and Philadelphia regard with haggard eyes the tendency of their art students and artists to gather in New York. They are straining every nerve to so establish their own museums and schools as to keep their artists and students at home, just as New York herself is gradually building up a combination of schools, museums, clubs, and art neighborhoods which constantly tends to lessen the necessity of prolonged residence in Europe. In this campaign against the exile of American artists the Metropolitan has already played its part, and under the auspices of its new managers is certain to double its efficiency.

A museum which contains such paintings as the Duke of Richmond with greyhound by Anthony van Dyck, the old lady and the Hille Bobbe of Haarlein by Franz Hals, the portrait of Henry G. Marquand by Sargent, the landscapes by Martin and Inness, the elderly man by Rembrandt, and the Dutch interior by Vermeer van Delft offers examples of portraiture that painters can study and study again. In ancient art the museum possesses a great prize in the



PORTRAIT BY FRANS HALS OF HILLE BOBBE OF HAARLEM.
(A famous sorceress and odd character frequently painted by Hals.)

bronze biga found near Monteleone di Spoleto in the old Etruscan country, the like of which cannot be found in Rome, Florence, or Perugia. To this category belongs a wonderful bronze tripod covered with figures in relief, now on its way to New York, which, like the biga, shows the influence of Greek myth and legend on the art of the Etruscans. The ancient glass, the Egyptian and Cypriote antiquities, the Bishop collection of Chinese jades, the Crosby collection of musical instruments, are so complete that no one but a specialist need seek further. In sculpture the Willard casts cover a large section of the statuary preserved in European museums. Of American painting and sculpture there is a fair beginning, which the trustees hope to see



BRONZE-INCRUSTED GALA CHARIOT OF ETRUSCAN MAKE WITH RELIEFS REFERRING TO THETIS, ACHILLES, AND MEMNON.

(Found near Monteleone di Spoleto, in Umbria, and put together in New York by Di Cesnola and Balliard.)

enlarged by gifts from collectors of native art. The nucleus is here for a very distinguished museum of the fine and applied arts, which requires, not only enlargement, but complete rearrangement, so that a student can find in the shortest possible time the object which he is seeking, whether it be prehistoric art, the handiwork of Indians of the East or the West, ancient



LIFE-SIZE PORTRAIT OF THE DUKE OF RICHMOND AND HIS FAVORITE GREYHOUND BY SIR ANTHONY VAN DYCK:

(Gift to the museum by the late Henry G. Marquand.)

classic art, or whether it be that of extinct nations like the Babylonians, the Egyptians and Etruscans, or Roman, Romanesque, medieval, or Renaissance art.

That the present collections are not arranged to the best effect is due in large part to the embarrassment caused by the claim of donors to have their gifts kept together. To insure this the late Mr. Heber Bishop furnished with a specific decoration the interior of a gallery, with the understanding that his collection of jades and no other should occupy that room. The question confronts the director how to place objects in historical sequence and according to origin in different parts of the world when they are scattered through different collections presented to the museum with a proviso attached. If any one can solve these knots, it will be a man like Sir Purdon, who has suavity and diplomatic



(Landscape on the Seine by Homer D. Martin. Gift to the museum by a number of amateurs.,

finesse, and the silver tongue of the Irishman. His task will be considerably lightened when the new wing is completed on Fifth Avenue north of the present east façade. Eventually, a southern extension will be built, making the front on Fifth Avenue about one thousand feet long. The brick-and-stone edifice which housed all the collections up to the time the east wing was opened will be a central body at last, surrounded on four sides by a parallelogram of gray stone. The new wing will afford a chance to bring out many objects not shown before and fill the gaps of collections by fresh purchases, and at the same time get the whole mass of exhibits into some sequence according to race and period, epoch and ethnic origin.

No doubt at present the influence and practical usefulness of the museum are not what they could be after a judicious handling of its resources and property. The experience of the art school annex may have discouraged the trustees at the time, though it is fair to say that the

situation now is much more favorable than it was then. Neither space nor income was so propitious as now. Perhaps the lesson it taught was to have the art school elsewhere than under the roof of the museum proper, because it is very difficult to carry it on in close connection with a public building visited daily by thousands of people. A museum has to be watched by detectives and guards, closed and opened at regular hours, and managed like clockwork. A school of art is necessarily a realm apart, in which an entirely different spirit reigns. The two do not work well together. Indeed, the Royal Academy in London and the National Academy in New York have not been very fortunate with their several art schools, though each grew from an art school as a nucleus. It will be difficult for the new director to solve the question of the home school, let alone the connections to be made with others out of town, provided he proposes to introduce here something like the system at South Kensington.

# WHAT THE NEW PRESIDENT IS PLANNING FOR THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

BY PRESIDENT EDMUND J. JAMES.

[Dr. Edmund J. James, one of the most advanced administrators of educational work in this country, has given up the presidency of Northwestern University, at Evanston, Ill., to become president of the Illinois State University, at Urbana-Champaign. Since Dr. James is a man of original and creative mind in his field, we have asked him to tell the readers of the REVIEW of REVIEWS what he means to do at Urbana and what he thinks ought to be the place and function of the University of Illinois. The article presented herewith supplies the answer. Dr. James is to be installed this month, with exercises lasting from the 17th to the 19th.—The Editor.]

I LOOK to see the University of Illinois do some things which no existing university does, and I hope it will lead the way along certain paths which I am sure our higher institu-

tions of learning will surely travel.

In the first place, I hope to see it grow at the top and lop off at the bottom until it becomes a true university. I trust it will erelong leave much to the high school and the college, which it is now doing, and press forward to what I conceive to be the true work of the university on its educational side,—namely, the very highest and most careful training of the youth of our community for all the various callings for which a long scientific training based on adequate preparatory work is valuable or necessary. Such work few institutions in this country are doing at present,—and none of them adequately. In this I hope Illinois will do its part.

But the institution will go further in two or

three directions, at any rate.

It will, in the first place, become a great civil service academy, preparing men and women especially for the work of government in locality. State, and nation. Our civil-service laws passed in so many States, and gradually becoming more and more efficient, mean, not only that politics in the colloquial sense must be cut out of our public administration, but that those who seek positions in our public service shall be qualified in general and trained in particular for such posts. Special training of a scientific character will, then, be more and more required for important positions in the administration of city, county, State, and nation. And this training the University of Illinois will give, turning out men and women qualified for the civil service, as West Point and Annapolis turn out men qualified for the military and the naval service.

TO SERVE THE STATE.

Again, the University of Illinois will become more and more the scientific arm of the State

government, as the governor and his assistants are the executive arm and the judges and courts of justice are the judicial arm. Every State is to-day undertaking functions for the proper performance of which careful and long-continued scientific investigations are necessary,-investigations requiring the existence of large and wellequipped laboratories, with permanent staffs of scientific men. All such work should be intrusted to the university, and in proportion as it does this work will it develop more and more into a great scientific department of the State administration. A remarkable beginning in this direction has already been made at Illinois, as may be seen from the list of scientific departments associated with the university as given above.

Still further, the University of Illinois will, or at any rate should, undertake another task,namely, certain of the functions of a State department, or ministry of education. We have in Illinois, as in most other American States, a State superintendent of public education, whose duties, however, are rather narrowly administrative, looking chiefly to the enforcement of legal regulations governing the action of school authorities. We have no public official interested,-as is the ministry of education in the German states, for example,-in the function of fostering the interest of education in general, lower as well as higher, whose duty it is to take stock of the educational needs of the community and present these needs to the attention of the government and the community. Such a function the university may, in certain directions, very properly undertake. Through its school of education, organizing the knowledge and skill of all other departments of the university for this end, it may bring to bear its expert knowledge on the great problems of education in such a way as to lead and inspire the community in this department of public policy. The State university, whatever other universities may do or not



PRESIDENT EDMUND J. JAMES, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

do, ought not to be content with training the teachers for the schools as they exist,—that is part of its work as a State civil-service academy,—it should all the time be investigating the question, What kind of schools do we need, and how should they be organized and integrated so as to make a complete and harmonious system?

These are some of the things I expect from the State university in general, and from the University of Illinois in particular.

#### FOR TRAINING MATURE MEN AND WOMEN.

It is evident enough, from the above, that I regard the university as an institution to train men and women, and not boys and girls. The latter is the work of high school and college, and will be remanded to them as soon as the American people has developed its education as it has developed its agriculture and its industry.

To accomplish all these things the university must,—and this ought to go without the saying,—train men and women of high moral character, idealistic aims, and untiring energy. It must naturally develop and train the scholar,

the original investigator. Its laboratories must be centers of research; its halls the fountains of purity, truth, honesty, and all things good and beautiful and true.

If I have said nothing of these things in what goes before, it is not that I do not value them, but rather because I regard them as so fundamental that they do not need mention. Without them, all else would be in vain. Without them as foundations, the superstructure would ultimately fall in ruins, no matter how high it should be reared or how massive the walls.

#### BEGINNINGS OF THE INSTITUTION.

The University of Illinois owes its foundation to the initiative of the federal government of the United States.

The celebrated Morrill Land Grant Act of July 2, 1862, provided that to each State in the Union should be granted thirty thousand acres of land for each Senator and Representative to which the State was entitled in the federal Congress for the establishment and support of at least one college whose leading object should

be (without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics) to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."

This grant of lands has turned out to be one of the most magnificent endowments of higher education ever made either by the State or the Church or private individuals. It has had, in addition, the most far-reaching effects, direct and indirect, in stimulating further grants by State and nation.

At least one institution corresponding to the above description has been established in each State as the result of this grant, to whose funds the State governments have in almost every instance added an endowment far exceeding that of the federal government.

In some cases the new college was annexed to or incorporated in some existing institution. In others it was made an entirely independent institution, limited to instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts. In still others it became the nucleus of a great State university, with all the departments belonging to an institution properly claiming such a time-honored name. This was the case in the State of Illinois.

The proceeds of the sale of these original lands constitute an endowment fund providing for the university about \$33,000 a year. By later acts, the federal government has added a yearly contribution of \$15,000 for the further endowment of these land-grant colleges, and an additional \$25,000 per year for the establishment and maintenance of an agricultural experiment station. All these funds, amounting to \$73,000 per year, go to the University of Illinois.

### WHAT THE STATE HAS DONE.

The State government has added largely to these sums for the support of the College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts and the Experiment Station. The last Legislature, for example, appropriated for the support of these departments fully \$450,000, or six times as much as the federal government. Besides these sums, the State has made large appropriations for the establishment and support of other departments which were not specifically mentioned in the act of 1862.

In a word, the State of Illinois has not only applied conscientiously to the purposes indicated in the original act all the funds which Congress appropriated therefor, but it has added six times

as much for these same purposes, and has, in addition, provided for the other departments necessary to convert the College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts into a full-fledged university capable of answering to the multiform needs of a great commonwealth. The small contribution of the federal government has thus led to the expenditure of ten times as much by the State itself for higher education. Where has a similar grant ever produced larger returns for education in the history of any time or country?

The University of Illinois has become the largest of the institutions which owe their existence immediately to the federal grant of 1862. Opened for work on March 2, 1868, with fewer than fifty students, its growth for the first twenty years was very slow, as the State at first declined to give largely in addition to the federal grant. As late as 1890 its faculty numbered only 35, and the student body 418. Since that time, partly by the addition of new colleges and partly by the increase in attendance in the old departments, the number of students has grown to 3,725, and of the faculty to over 350.

#### PRESENT RANGE OF DEPARTMENTS.

To the original colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts (engineering, architecture, etc.) have been added a college of literature and arts, of science, of law, of medicine, of dentistry, and schools of music, of library science, of pharmacy, and of education.

In the College of Literature and Arts and the graduate school connected with it are included all the subjects of instruction of the modern university not embraced in the other schools and colleges except those offered in a theological seminary.

Associated with the university are, besides the agricultural experiment station, a State engineering experiment station (the first of the kind in the country), the State geological survey, the State laboratory of natural history, the State entomologist's office, and the State water survey.

Such is the university now. What is to be its future? The head of a great administrative enterprise should never forget the answer which Lincoln once made to a committee who urged him to take certain action, and one of whom said: "Why, Mr. Lincoln, it is very easy. All you have to do is to say so and it is done." "Ah, no, my friends," was the reply. "You do not understand. I have very little influence with this administration." So a university president can do but few of the things he would like to do. And perhaps it is just as well.



THE OPENING OF THE UINTAH RESERVATION.
(Drawing Lot No. 1 at Provo, Utah, August 17, 1905.)

# THE UINTAH LAND OPENING.

HE Uintah Indian Reservation, recently opened to settlement, embraces the valley of the Duchesne River and its tributaries in northeastern Utah, and was created by executive order, dated October 3, 1861. By act of Congress, dated May 5, 1864, the superintendent of Indian affairs for the Territory of Utah was authorized and required to collect and settle upon this reservation all or so many of the Indians of Utah Territory as might be induced to inhabit the same. It proved to be a very difficult matter to get the Ute Indians to occupy the reserva-They were a powerful and warlike tribe, divided into numerous bands, and ranged over a vast extent of country in northwestern Colorado and northeastern Utah. In 1873, there were known to be seven tribes of the Utes of Utah by official construction located upon this reservation, but in fact roaming over other parts of the country most of the time, occasionally assembling to receive such supplies as were furnished them by the Government. At the present time but three tribes are recognized, being the Uintahs, White Rivers, and Uncompangres.

These Indians now reside upon the reservation. According to the allotments made to them, they number 1,451 persons.

The area embraced within the boundaries of the reservation is 2,460,285 acres. Of this area, 1,010,000 acres, consisting of timbered mountains, mostly lying upon the northern and western sides of the reservation, was added to the Uintah Forest Reserve; about 61,000 acres was withdrawn for reservoir sites; about 103,000 acres was allotted to the Indians for agricultural purposes; 276,000 acres was reserved for Indian grazing lands and timber reserve; 2,020 acres was disposed of by act of Congress as mining claims; the Fort Duchesne military reserve occupies 3,860 acres, and the remainder, approximately 1,000,000 acres, which it is estimated would make 5.772 homestead claims, was opened to settlement on August 28, 1905.

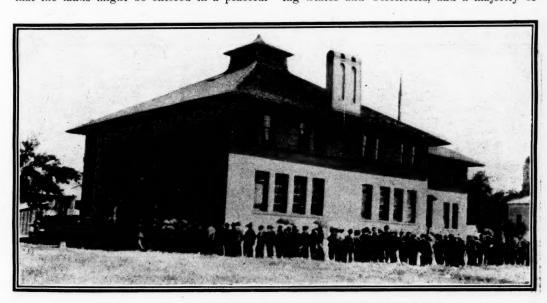
Within recent years, public attention has been directed to this reserve through the discovery within its boundaries of large deposits of asphalt of the most valuable kinds, some of which are not found elsewhere. The principal one of these

substances, and the one which has made this locality famous, is called, in the geological reports, Uintaite. It is more generally known by its trade name of Gilsonite, given to it in honor of an early prospector of this locality named S. H. Gilson. In the geological reports, Gilsonite is described as being a black, tarry-looking substance with most brilliant luster, normally of absolutely homogeneous texture, and exceedingly brittle. It is employed generally in the manufacture of black, low-grade brush and dipping varnishes, and for ironwork, for insulated electric wires, and for coating poles, ties, and piling, and is a substitute for vulcanized rubber in the manufacture of certain articles. It was also generally believed that there were deposits of the precious metals within this Indian reservation, and the fact that prospecting had been prohibited within its boundaries had a tendency to magnify the reports in circulation relative to the mineral riches of the mountains.

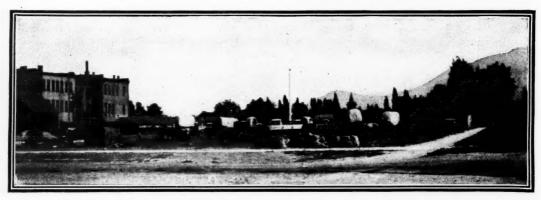
On account of the known richness of the reservation in Gilsonite, elaterite, and other asphalt substances, taken in connection with the rumors of gold and silver mines that the reservation was alleged to contain, it was regarded as a certainty that if these lands were simply thrown open to entry without any regulations there would be a rush similar to those which took place at the opening of the first Oklahoma lands, with the hardship, violence, and bloodshed which attended those openings. In order that the lands might be entered in a peaceful

and orderly manner, Congress authorized the President to prescribe by proclamation the manner in which they should be settled upon, occupied, and entered by persons entitled to make entry thereof. In pursuance of this authority, the President, by proclamation, dated July 14, 1905, directed that the unallotted unreserved portions of said reservation should be open to entry under the homestead and town-site laws on and after the twenty-eighth day of August, 1905. The proclamation also prescribed that there should be a registration at Vernal, Price, and Provo, in the State of Utah, and at Grand Junction, in the State of Colorado, for the purpose of ascertaining what persons desired to enter and settle upon and acquire title to any of these lands under the homestead law. It was also directed that the order in which, during the first sixty days following the opening, registered applicants would be permitted to make homestead entry of these lands should be determined by a drawing to be publicly held at Provo, Utah, commencing at 9 o'clock A.M., Thursday, August 17, 1905, and continuing for such period as might be necessary to complete the same.

In accordance with this proclamation, registration was conducted at the places and during the period prescribed in the proclamation, with the result that there were registered 37,702 applicants. A little more than one-half of this number were from Utah. Colorado furnished the next largest number, while all of the adjoining States and Territories, and a majority of



APPLICANTS FOR LAND STANDING IN LINE TO BE REGISTERED AT PROVO, UTAH.



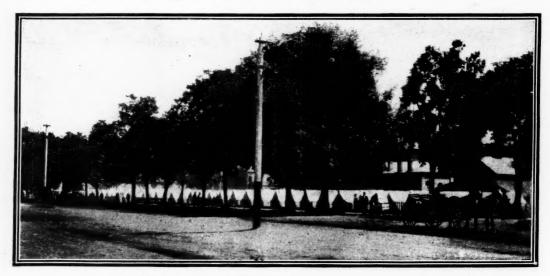
THE WAGONS OF SOME WHO CAME TO REGISTER FOR THE UINTAH LAND.

the States in the Union, were represented. All classes of people were represented in the registration, but the agricultural class,—those actually desirous of obtaining homes upon government land,—very largely predominated.

As each applicant was registered he signed his name on a card containing a description sufficient for his identification, which card was inclosed in a small plain envelope and sealed up. At the conclusion of the registration, all of these cards were brought together at Provo, and upon the day fixed for the drawing were placed in a box which could be revolved, and which was situated upon a platform in a public square, where all could see the drawing.

The actual drawing of the envelopes was done by schoolboys, and the man whose name was contained in the first envelope drawn had the privilege of making the first entry of land, thus having the choice of any one-hundred-and-sixty-acre tract of the land opened to entry, the succeeding ones making entry in the order in which their names were drawn. One hundred and eleven entries may be made each working day during the sixty-day period prescribed by the proclamation, after which the remainder becomes public land. The registration and drawing were successfully concluded, and the entries, begun upon August 28, are progressing in a quiet and orderly manner.

This plan of opening Indian lands to settlement and entry was first used in 1901 in opening the Kiowa, Comanche, and Apache lands in Oklahoma, and has proved so satisfactory that it is followed by the Government in all cases of a similar nature.



TENTS OCCUPIED BY TRANSIENTS DURING THE REGISTRATION AT PROVO.

# MEXICAN WATER-POWER DEVELOPMENT.

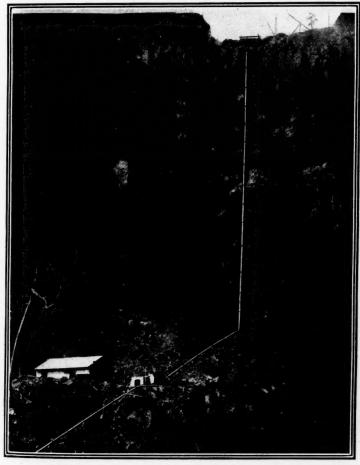
BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

THE American who has not traveled in Mexico is hardly likely to think of that country as richer in water-power possibilities than Switzerland, but the fact is that the hydraulic resources of our southern sister republic are commensurate with her treasures of gold and silver. And curiously enough, like the ranges that tower upward into Mont Blanc, the Jungfrau and the Matterhorn, the lofty mountains and plateaus of Mexico are so destitute of coal and wood as to render other means of obtaining motive power

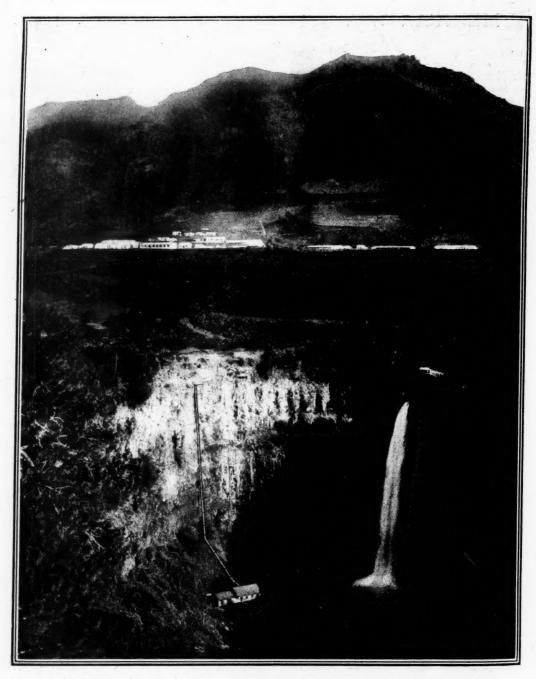
extremely valuable. In the United States, the most striking hydro-electric development has occurred in California, where a similar scarcity of fuel always exists, and it is not surprising, therefore, to find Mexico a leader also in these essentially modern triumphs of skillful and bold engineering. The last five years have witnessed a wonderful outburst of activity in hydro-electricity in Mexico, with the result that she offers to-day some of the most remarkable examples of such work in the world. One of the most fa-

mous plants is that utilizing the falls of Juanacatalan, while another is to be found at Guanajuato, the scene of recent disasters from flood, a center of mining activity for hundreds of years, and a century ago one of the five largest cities of the whole new world. With this revivification of rich old mining fields, the creation of new, and the birth of great manufacturing industries, Mexico has come to look upon her slender but lofty waterfalls as among her most cherished possessions, and is to-day welcoming fervently American capital, engineers, and machinery for their thorough exploitation.

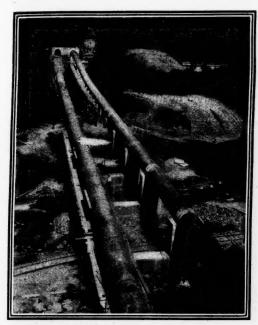
Thus, it happens that Mexico can boast the longest electric - power transmission in the world from one big plant,-namely, that utilizing the splendid doubledecked Necaxa Falls, whose glistening silver spray, by means of the electrical engineer's alchemy, becomes gold indeed at distant El Oro, or the city of Mexico, -a total line transmission of 171 miles. The Mexican Light & Power Company, an energetic corporation whose present field of operation is the great central Mexican plateau, is develop-



TEMPORARY PLANT INSTALLED AT NECAXA TO SUPPLY CURRENT AND COMPRESSED AIR TO BE USED IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE LARGE PERMANENT POWER PLANT IN THE SAME VICINITY.



A VIEW OF THE NECAXA FALLS, SHOWING THE TEMPORARY PLANT AND CABLEWAY.



A SECTION OF THE PIPE LINES.

ing and conserving the energy of the Tenango and Necaxa rivers, which, at a point 100 miles northeast of the city of Mexico, break out of the mountains at a height of three-quarters of a mile above the sea, and flow, finally, into the Gulf of Mexico. These twin rivers drain a territory of

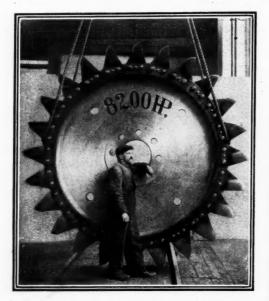
227 square miles, and, owing to the extraordinary geologic nature of the region, encounter a wonderful succession of waterfalls, or precipitous plunges, with a total drop of more than half a mile-3,000 feet-in a distance of three miles. It is needless to say that with such a "head even a modest quantity of water can keep some of the largest electrical generators spinning; and by creating reservoir capacity these mills of the heavens can be kept grinding out their grist of current all the year around at a steady output. The plan adopted for utilization has been bold, simple, Napoleonic. The Tenango River has been consolidated with the Necaxa, and their joint flow has been dammed up

into a reserve fund in an artificial lake at Necaxa. Thence the water goes through two "lofty tumbling" acts on the Necaxa River, and passing downward gets a total drop of 1,470 feet in a mile before it smashes headlong into the first power plant. Here, however, all its potential is not given up, as immediately below is another giddy drop of 1,100 feet, at the foot of which it must again set other dynamos humming before it is allowed to flow unvexed to the mangroves that fringe the Gulf. The two plants are to have a final capacity of no less than 80,000 horse-power, or enough to light up 1,000,000 incandescent lamps in the capital of Diaz.

A great deal of shrewd planning and clever engineering are needed for such a grandiose enterprise. The dam for the Necaxa lake, built of earth, will be 177 feet high, 600 feet long, 54 feet wide at its crest, and 950 feet wide at the base; it required 2,000,000 cubic yards of material, obtained chiefly by blasting and hydraulic sluicing. From the three-square-mile lake thus created up in the air runs a tunnel 1,550 feet long to two vertical pipes that finally reach a receiver, from which in turn six huge delivery seamless steel tubes drop to the powerhouse itself. In this initial power-house are six main water-wheels directly connected to the electrical generators, with a maximum capacity of 50,000 horse-power. Each impulse waterwheel has around its rim 24 large buckets, or scooped paddles, and the water falling on these imparts motion to the revolving field generators



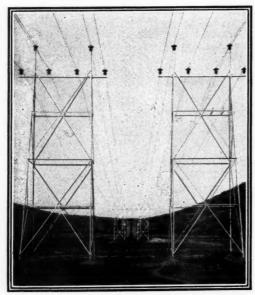
THE INTAKE PIPES AT THE HEADWORKS.



ONE OF THE SIX GIGANTIC WATER-WHEELS.

(Showing rim surrounded by twenty-four buckets, or scooped paddles.)

that furnish three-phase alternating current at a pressure of 4,000 volts. This current then goes to "step-up" transformers, which, like spring-boards, raise its pressure to 40,000, 50,000, or 60,000 volts for the long-distance transmission



THE LOFTY STEEL TOWERS THAT SUPPORT THE STRANDED COPPER CONDUCTORS.

circuits. Part of the electrical machinery is from Germany, part from Schenectady, while the water-wheels were imported from Switzerland. The power-house is a massive building of steel and masonry 235 feet long, 88 feet wide, and 60 feet high. All the apparatus for it, after transportation for thousands of miles, had to be

SIDE-VIEW OF A TRANSPOSITION

swung down over cliffs and inclined cableways some 1,500 feet before it got pocketed forever in the cañon where it must now work as long as it lives, an imprisoned giant devouring waterfalls.

The transmission circuits for such a plant as this must be as enduring as the power plant itself. Wooden poles would not suffice in lands of the white ant, the festooning creeper, and the tropic storm, so that here we find two lofty steel tower lines and four separate circuits right into the city of Mexico, and two circuits thence to El Oro. The towers are of the kind associated in the popular

mind in America with windmills, and stand 50 feet high on 500 feet spans, or higher when spans are strung as long as 1,200 feet. The stranded copper conductors, about twice the diameter of lead pencils, are supported on massive insulators that resemble mushrooms at the end of short walking sticks. There are 534 miles of circuit and 1,602 miles of aërial cable, so that the pole line is conspicuous as it bestrides 171 miles of landscape. At full load, the loss of current between Necaxa and the city of Mexico is only 8 per cent, and from that point to El Oro only 5 per cent more.

Arrived at both the city of Mexico and the El Oro gold fields, the high-potential line current is received at large sub-stations, stepped down in pressure, and so manipulated as to be

safely available for public use.

# PRESIDENT DIAZ ON TRANSCONTINENTAL TRADE.

### BY HENRY STEAD.

I WAS not long in Mexico before I discovered that, for all practical purposes, Diaz was Mexico and Mexico was Diaz. President in name only, absolute dictator in reality. General Diaz was first elected in 1876. With a break of four years (1880–84), he has ruled in peace ever since. An election takes place every four years, but hardly any one goes to the polls, and a unanimous vote in favor of Diaz is recorded.

On every hand one is confronted with evidences of the cleverness and resource of this man, who holds Mexico in the hollow of his hand. There is confidence throughout the whole financial world in the integrity of Mexico. Money is pouring in to develop the wonderful resources of the country, and all because Diaz is there. When he first came to power, robbery and corruption were rife. Now a held-up train is unknown, and any one can travel without fear throughout the length and breadth of the land. Not the least of his achievements was the formation of the Rurales. These are the country police, well mounted, well-built men, well organized. Formerly they were bandits who kept the country in terror. Diaz offered them two alternatives,—amnesty and enrollment in a corps of the army, with higher pay than any cavalryman receives anywhere else in the world, or, that for every person robbed any bandit caught should promptly be shot. The amnesty was accepted.

# A STRONG AND PEACEFUL REIGN.

When any member of his cabinet becomes too strong and self-assertive he finds himself appointed governor of a distant province. There, far from the center of things, he can lord it as a king if he will. The astute president never allows army corps to remain more than a month or two in any province. The governor may become too popular with the officers; so the army circulates constantly throughout the land. The building of railways has been steadily fostered by the president, and they have largely helped in keeping things quiet. Formerly an insurrection in a distant province assumed formidable proportions long before the republican soldiers could march to and quell it. Now, within twentyfour hours horse, foot, and artillery are on the spot, and revolutions have quite gone out of fashion.

There is much speculation as to what will happen when Diaz dies. Merchants and financiers trust that if things go wrong Uncle Sam will be obliged to step in to safeguard the large monetary interests of his subjects. The general feeling is that things will go on smoothly, as the people have had no fighting for twenty years, and do not want any, finding that peace pays best. No one, however, believes that the present vice-president, Signor Corral,—good and able man though he is,—will become the chief executive. It is generally assumed that Diaz is training some one up to take his place, and most point to his nephew as the man.

### AN AUDIENCE WITH THE PRESIDENT.

My appointment with the president was at the National Palace, near the cathedral which the Spaniards erected on the site of the old pyramidal temple they captured from the Aztecs with so much slaughter and bloodshed. As I crossed the square I noticed a procession of workingmen in their quaint attire entering from another Policemen formed them up facing the palace gate. Four of the workers, evidently the spokesmen, accompanied by a gentleman, their introducer, immediately preceded me, through the lines of soldiers standing at attention, to the audience-room. I found a large number gathered there seated on the luxurious couches of the ante-room to the Hall of Ambassadors. I was surprised to notice that many of those waiting smoked incessantly, rather to the detriment of the fine carpet. After a little while an attendant, not in uniform, entered and read fourteen or fifteen names from a typewritten paper in his The unfortunates who were not mentioned rose and left the room; the rest remained, although those after the eighth or ninth would have little chance of audience that day. The first name was called about fifteen minutes later. and its bearer went into another ante-room at the end in which were the president's two aidede-camps. The audience varied from fifteen minutes to half an hour. Near me sat the four workmen, supremely ill at ease. One, rather venerable, wore a red-and-white scarf over his blue blouse. Another had the usual blanket over his shoulders, his head coming through a hole in the center. This deputation went in just before I did.

President Diaz came to the door to meet me. He is short, with almost white hair. His eyes are clear and penetrating. High cheek-bones give a very Indian look to the face, which is brown, probably because of exposure on many a tented field. The mouth is almost hidden beneath an iron-gray mustache. He has a firm chin and small but powerful hands. The president is seventy-four, but does not look sixty. His carriage is alert and vigorous, and although he had had a hard day's work, he showed no signs of fatigue. He motioned me to a chair, and sat down in one immediately opposite. The interpreter sat by my side.

## PROSPERITY AND IMMIGRATION.

"I find," I said, "that the present prosperity of Mexico and her people is, to a very large extent, due to you, and I am proud to meet a man who in a comparatively short time has been able to bring cosmos out of choas in the way

you have done."

President Diaz deprecatingly replied: "I am not the man to whom the prosperity of the country is due. It is my people themselves who have made it possible. All I have done has been to lead and direct. At first it was true it had sometimes to be done with a heavy hand, but now everything goes smoothly and I wear a velvet glove. It is the people, and they alone, who are the cause of the prosperity of the republic."

"You encourage immigration, do you not?"
"Yes. My country needs developing, and for

"Yes. My country needs developing, and for many of its industries and mines requires foreigners. I am arranging just now for several thousand Porto Ricans to come. They are used to the same climate, and will be useful citizens."

#### COMPETITION WITH PANAMA.

"I notice that you are devoting considerable energy to the development of ports and harbors."

"Yes, we are spending forty million dollars gold in all upon them. Sir W. Pearson, of England, is the contractor, and his monthly check often reaches half a million dollars gold."

The president proceeded to describe what he saw in a tour he made to the different harbors now being built. From what he said it was evi-

dent that he is a keen observer.

"I believe that you hope to capture a great deal of the transcontinental trade now carried by the Panama Railway?" "We think that we will get that trade for many years to come, and will largely increase it. The engineer in charge of the Panama Canal works has announced that the railway will be entirely requisitioned for construction work. He calculates that he will have the canal ready for use in ten years. The difficulties there are, however, enormous. One of the worst will be that of labor. I do not expect it will be finished in fifteen years."

## THE TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE.

"Are your harbors and railway ready?"

"The railway is completed, but the harbors will not be ready for two years. At Salina Cruz, which is the Pacific terminus of the railway, the water is so deep that the contractor has been unable to run his breakwaters out into the sea. He will therefore build them on the land and dig out the sand to the required depth, and then let in the water."

"Instead of winning the harbor from the sea, he carves it from the land and then lets the sea

in ?"

"Exactly. At Coatzacoalcos, on the Gulf of Mexico, there is not that difficulty. The government has already made a contract with a great steamship company, and as soon as the harbors are ready six of its vessels will ply to the Atlantic and four to the Pacific end of the railway."

"Until the canal is cut your railway should be a link in the most direct route from Australia and New Zealand to Europe and the Eastern States of America. But after fifteen, or, say, twenty, years what will become of it?"

"If you look at the map," he replied, "you will notice that it is much shorter to take our route than to go all around the Yucatan peninsula to Panama. I feel sure that even after the canal is cut we will still retain a large percentage of the interoceanic trade. The dues on the canal will be a considerable item. Of course, using our route necessitates transshipment."

"I think it was Admiral Fisher who said he would not care to risk a battleship costing five million dollars in a canal which necessarily would have to run risks of earthquake and floods."

"Earthquakes are bad there," said the president; "but it is the yellow fever which will be the worst enemy the builders will have to contend with."

After talking of many other more personal matters, I took a cordial leave.



# THE FUTURE OF BRITISH INDIA.

BY SIR HENRY COTTON, K.C.S.I.

[In view of Lord Curzon's resignation of the viceroyalty of India and the certainty that Indian questions will press for solution in the next British Parliament, it is an opportune moment, we feel, to present to our readers the following article on India and the policies and prospects which are before her. Sir Henry Cotton, who speaks from the background of thirty-five years' experience in the Indian service, knows the Hindu and his land better than perhaps any other living Englishman. In December, 1904, he was president of the Indian National Congress, an annual assembly the nearest approach to an Indian parliament.]

THERE has been a great uprising in India. Great changes are taking place. There is a general revolt of discontent. We have witnessed the unparalleled spectacle of mass-meetings of indignant protest at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Allahabad, and Lahore. Lord Curzon is a man of exceptional ability and extraordinary industry and not incapable of great sympathy, and if only he could have sympathized with the aspirations and hopes of the Indian people, he might have made his viceroyalty memorable in the annals of India. But he has failed in this matter. He sees from one standpoint, the Indian people from another. No viceroy was ever so unpopular in India as Lord Curzon is. The result of reaction is always to galvanize the elements of progress into fresh life. The revolution which has been wrought by English influences and civilization in India will always constitute the most abiding monument of British rule. It is hundred armed, and leaves no side of the national character untouched. But the government is irresponsive; it remains the same, a monopoly of the ruling race; there is no diminution of suspicion, distrust, and dislike of the national movement. The aim and end of the new imperial policy is to knit with closer bonds the power of the British Empire over India, to proclaim and establish that supremacy through ceremonies of pomp and pageantry, and by means of British capital to exploit the country in the economic interests of the British nation. encouragement of Indian aspirations falls not within its ken. It would be strange indeed if the fire of a patriotic opposition were not kindled.

Lord Curzon lately declared that he could not conceive of a time as remotely possible in which it would be either practicable or desirable that Great Britain should take her hand from the Indian plow. That is the popular view, and I do not doubt that it voices the unreflecting opinion of the majority of Englishmen. But it is not my conception of India's future. It is not possible that the British tenure of India, as it is now held, can be of a permanent

character. The administration of all the departments of a great country by a small number of foreign visitors, in a state of isolation, produced by a difference in religion, ideas, and manners, which cuts them off from all intimate communion with the people, can never exist as a permanent state of things. The progress of education renders it impracticable, even if it were otherwise free from objection. The emancipation of India has become inevitable ever since a system of English education has been established and the principle of political equality accepted. The increasing influence of a free press, the substitution of legal for descretionary forms of procedure, the extension of railways and telegraphs. the easier communication with Europe, and the more ready influx of Western ideas and liberal principles have produced their effect. The power of public opinion is growing daily. great upheaval which has revolutionized all departments of Indian thought, inspired the aspirations of diverse communities, and infused the sense of nationality through a vast and surging empire can only find its peaceful fulfillment in the wise recognition of changes inherent in the situation which the British Government itself has created. An abrupt retreat from India would be advocated by no one; it would be to act like men who should kidnap a child, and then in a fit of repentance abandon him in a tiger jungle. The progress of reconstruction cannot be effected otherwise than by slow and gradual means, and many years must elapse before we can expect the consummation of a reconstructive policy. But it is a policy which we should always keep before our eyes. Sooner or later India must again take her own rank among the nations of the East. That great country is not inhabited by a savage primitive people who have reared no indigenous system of industry or art, who are ignorant of their own interests, and who are incapable of advance in civilization. They look back on their past with a just sense of pride, and under the influence of English education are stimulated with legitimate ambition.

They are striving for the attainment of high ideals which, however they may be delayed or marred in execution, are sure in the event.

# INDIA'S LOYALTY AND INDIAN ASPIRATIONS.

The people of India do not like the British dominion, but they do not wish to see a change of masters. They know that the abolition of English dominion would be accompanied by incalculable disaster. There is not the faintest wish on the part of the educated classes of India to turn the British Government out of the country. They have the greatest dread of Russia. The dislike of Russia by educated Indians is probably far stronger than that felt by ordinary Englishmen, and if there is any Russian who dreams that India is looking forward to the day when Russia would take the place of England he is profoundly mistaken. The Indian people are loyal to England. The people of India do believe in the good faith, honor, and intregrity of Englishmen. They are grateful for the education with which they have been endowed; grateful for the liberties they enjoy, and grateful for their immunity from foreign invasion. But this gratitude is tempered by a feeling that the pledges held out to them by her late gracious majesty Queen Victoria, and by men in exalted positions, have not been fulfilled. They claim that the government should repose confidence in them, and not shrink from raising them to the highest posts. They demand real, not nominal equality, a voice in the government, and a career in the public service.

It was the dream of John Bright, and he indulged in no mere mystic prophecy when he foresaw that India would fulfill her fate by a process of evolution, out of which she would emerge, not through force or violence, as an independent state, or torn from the mother country, or abandoned to England's enemies, but as a federated portion of the dominions of the great British Empire. The destiny of India is to be placed on a fraternal footing with the colonies of England. The ideal of the Indian patriot is the establishment of a federation of free and separate states, the United States of India, corresponding with existing local areas and administrations and independent chiefships, each with its own local autonomy cemented together under the ægis of Great Britain.

## THE ECONOMIC PROBLEM.

No one who considers the economic condition of India can doubt that one of its greatest evils is to be found in the fact that the great mass of the people are dependent upon the cultivation of the soil. The establishment of large indus-

tries capitalized by Englishmen affords but a poor compensation for the variety of indigenous industries once spread through the country. An India supplying England with its raw products and dependent upon England for all its more important manufactures is not a condition of affairs which Indian patriots can contemplate with equanimity. The spectacle of a cluster of Europeans settling down upon their country and sucking from it the moisture which ought to give them sustenance finds no favor in their eyes. Their opposition to the exploitation of their country by foreigners is based upon a conviction that this exploitation is a real obstacle to their progress. They are convinced that the prosperity of the country depends on the diminution of its economic drain and on the conservation of its resources for ultimate development by indigenous agency. I am glad to recognize the growing tendency of Indians to help themselves. There are satisfactory evidences of this tendency. The difficulties are immense, for the essential difficulty always hinges on the disagreeable truth that there can be no revival of Indian industry without some displacement of British industry. But the first steps have been taken and a start made by Indian capitalists.

#### WESTERN INFLUENCES ON THE EAST.

The force which has made Japan what she is is an absorbing patriotism derived from, and dependent on, her national existence. It is based on collective action, which independence alone can give. What an inspiration is afforded by the character of these Eastern islanders! What an example have they not set to the East of the power of a patriotic spirit! That example is not lost on India. Although the conditions there do not point to any early renaissance such as we have witnessed in Japan, the changes taking place are as remarkable in their social, moral, and religious relations as in their political aspect. India is bereft of its independence. But a nascent nationalism is the magnet which holds together the solvent influences of Western civilization, let loose in the simple society of the East. Under the immediate effect of these influences the old organizations are crumbling up. The result of English education has been to break the continuity of centuries, and India has entered upon a period of transition preparatory to the establishment of a new order. It is in matters of education more than any other that the people of the country are ripe for self-government. Systematic education is already falling into the hands of private enterprise. A policy which endeavors to knit together still tighter the bonds of official control is absolutely retrograde. It has been condemned by every section of Indian opinion, and though it may temporarily prevail, it will be as evanescent as it is unsound. It is only through the educated members of the Indian community that it is possible to guide the people at large so as to bridge over the period of disorder with the least disturbance. It is reserved for them to introduce modifications, with due regard to the antecedents which must always powerfully affect the environment in which they are placed. The problem of grafting Western ideas on to an Oriental stock can only be solved by Orientals who are thoroughly imbued with a knowledge of Western civilization, and have at the same time not lost sight of the traditions of their past.

### RECONSTITUTION OF THE CIVIL SERVICE.

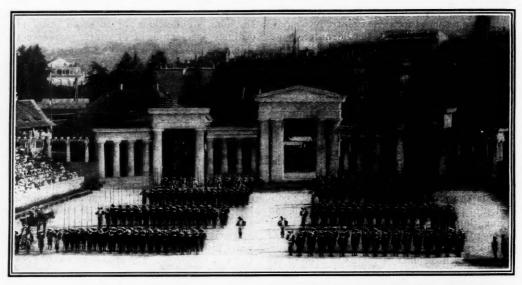
The keynote of administrative reform is the gradual substitution of Indian for European official agency. That is the one end toward which India is concentrating her efforts, and the concession of this demand is the only means of satisfying the most reasonable of her aspirations. To meet this end the complete reconstitution of the Indian civil service is necessary. It is surprising how little change there has been in the form of administration in India during the past century. The character of the civil service has been theoretically unchanged. It is a fine old service, of which I, of all men, have reason to speak with respect. It has enrolled within its ranks men of whom the mother country may well be proud. It is, however, a form of administration both bureaucratic and autocratic, and an organization suited only to a government by foreigners. It has been perceptibly weakening from its inherent inapplicability to the altered conditions it has to face. It must pass away after a prolonged period of magnificent work, to be replaced by a more popular system, which shall perpetuate its efficiency while avoiding its defects. The government should now find expression in a form of administration more representative and less concentrated in individuals. In the judicial branch of the service, reorganization is immediately required. The members of that service when very young and, in the case of Englishmen, very ignorant of the language, are vested with magisterial powers beyond comparison greater than those possessed by corresponding functionaries under any civilized government, and it would best range indeed if they were not led into occasional errors and sometimes into abuse of power. It is the system that is to blame.

#### ARMY REORGANIZATION.

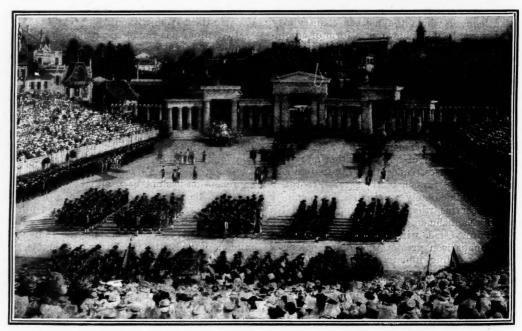
The martial spirit of our own Indian subjects is dying out. The Russians can get from the territories they have absorbed in Central Asia an Alikhanoff or a Loris Melikoff. We can only produce men who rise to the rank of Naik, Havildar, or Resildar, or to some other subordinate post, the name of which perplexes the English public. The Mogul emperors adopted heartily and completely the policy of trust; Akbar's greatest generals and most devoted adherents were sons of the very men his grandfather had conquered. The Rajput chivalry was the main bulwark of the Mogul throne. The British Government, on the contrary, has adopted a policy of suspicion; the officers of the native army are only noncommissioned old soldiers, promoted from the ranks, who in virtue of their longer services draw larger pay and are permitted to sit down in the presence of an English The first step toward reorganization subaltern. is to augment the power of the native officers and to afford some scope to their abilities and ambition. The conversion of a mercenary army into a national force is the logical complement of this step. The establishment of provincial army corps, with an esprit and traditions of their own, recruited from the common people, and officered by the gentry of the provinces in which they are to serve, would prove both a safeguard against internal disorder and a protection against attack from without.

Mr. Balfour has rendered an inestimable service by his recent speech in the House of Commons on imperial defense. It marks an epoch in the history of Anglo-Indian militarism. It It comes to this, that in the opinion of the Committee of Defense the invasion of India, "the bugbear of successive governments," is practically out of the question. The fear of Russian invasion is a strange hallucination, which has existed without intermission for nearly a century, and even now, when we have seen the annihilation of Russia's forces in Manchuria, the apprehension has not been altogether dispelled. But Mr. Balfour's speech has done much to place matters in a proper light. The truth is, that the obstacles which nature has placed between the land of the Czar and the Indian dominions of the British Crown are insuperable, and that aggression on the part of Russia toward India would be as suicidal in her case as aggression on the part of England into Central Asia would infallibly result in the destruction of an army dispatched thither.

# SWITZERLAND'S FÊTE OF THE VINE.



A PAGEANT OF THE PÊTE DES VIGNERONS, THE GREAT SWISS PASTORAL FESTIVAL, HELD AT VEVAY, AUGUST 4 TO 11, CELEBRATING WITH SONGS, BALLADS, AND TABLEAUX THE RURAL LIFE OF SWITZERLAND.



A VIEW OF THE GREAT PLAZA AT VEVAY DURING ONE OF THE OPENING PAGEANTS.
(Originating in Vaudois, this custom has spread to all French Switzerland, until it is now national in scope.)



THE COSTUMES AND DANCES ARE OF EXQUISITE GRACE AND BEAUTY. (This year the spectacle was viewed by more than 100,000 persons, and 1,800 actors and musicians took part.)



THE FOUR SEASONS IN THE LIFE OF THE VINEYARDER ARE REPRESENTED IN TABLEAUX. (It not only celebrates the traditional Swiss life, but brings out the poetry of the peasants' occupations.)

# AMERICAN LIFE INSURANCE ON TRIAL.

### BY WALTER WELLMAN.

[Readers of this magazine are thoroughly familiar with Mr. Walter Wellman's presentation of current public questions of moment. Mr. Wellman is a journalist of independent mind, who would not for anything part with his privilege of frank and honest utterance. Where human interest has its focus, there one will generally find Mr. Wellman studying the topic of the hour. Before going to Portsmouth to be near the deliberations of the peace conference, he had spent some weeks in New York studying the life-insurance question. The article which we present herewith embodies the main results of Mr. Wellman's inquiries. He is not an insurance expert, and this article will not express the views of very many able and honest men who have long concerned themselves with the insurance business. It has seemed best to us, however, to ask Mr. Wellman to set forth his views, and to publish them for what they are worth, without modifications, however erroneous some critics may regard them. It is hoped that next month we shall be able to present an article written in equal good faith from the standpoint of a man responsibly engaged in the insurance business.—The Editor.]

MERICAN life insurance is not on trial, but American life-insurance management is," said, recently, the president of one of our largest insurance companies. But he is wrong. American life insurance is on trial. At the very outset of this article I wish to place all possible emphasis upon the statement that maladministration - graft and petty pilfering - is not the most serious phase of life-insurance management in this country to-day. The graft is bad enough. But the economic faults of life insurance management are far worse. The chief weakness of the whole system is not found in defective morals, but in defective methods. The one may cost policy-holders a few millions a year; the losses due to the other run to scores of millions annually.

At first, the scandal of the Equitable mismanagement engrossed attention. It was startling, sensational. It produced big headlines and filled acres of space in the newspapers. The public was shocked. Here was corruption, not on the part of subordinates, cashiers, clerks, and small-salaried men, but on the part of those occupying the highest places of trust and responsibility,-leaders in the financial world and in society. The offense which these men committed was not alone against the policy-holders of that company, -they sinned grievously against the whole American people. They impaired public confidence. They led the common people all over the land to fear that the management of other great financial institutions was infected with a like gangrene of graft. Everywhere people asked: "Where is this thing to stop? What are we coming to? If such things can be in the Equitable, which has stood for generations as a model of solid probity, why not in others? Where next shall we hear of criminal greed on the part of eminently respectable rich men occupying posts of financial trust? In these days of frenzied finance and feverish rush to get rich, in whom can we place our faith?

### PROFOUND INTEREST, BUT NO PANIC.

It is a wonder that there was not something like a panic among the policy-holders of the country. But there was none. The people kept their heads. They did not lose faith in all lifeinsurance management because a few officials of one concern had been caught making money wrongfully. They did not rush to the conclusion that one sore spot indicated the whole financial body was diseased. They refused to accept the version of the ultra-pessimistic that the managing men throughout the whole world of finance were crooked, that old-fashioned business honor is played out in this country, and that get-rich-quick-no-matter-how has supplanted the plain honesty of the olden days. They did not lose confidence in banks, nor in savings institutions, nor by wholesale drop their life-insurance policies. This steadiness and patience is a quality highly characteristic of the American people. Honest themselves, they are loath to suspect dishonesty in others. Both in their temperament and in their splendid and well-diffused prosperity, they are optimists. They are not easily demoralized in their judgment nor quickly roused to unreasoning anger.

### THE PEOPLE ARE STUDYING INSURANCE.

But at last the American people began to demand information about life-insurance methods in general,—the economies of the business as well as its scandals. The Equitable affair vastly and well-nigh universally stimulated curiosity and study; it first produced exclamation marks, and then interrogation points. It was characteristic of a people of such extraordinary quickness and alertness of mind,—and a people filling a continent taught by a marvelously synchron-

ous press to think about the same thing at the same time,—that there should suddenly arise from one end of the country to the other a desire for information about this great institution of life insurance. For years the people had pinned their faith to this institution. They had poured their money into it by the hundreds of millions. To do so had become a national habit, almost a second nature. And like most habits, it had formed and developed without much inquiry, investigation, analysis, or discrimination.

The day has passed in which any concern bearing the name of life insurance can send out solicitors and gather in business. Men who formerly paid for policies without reading them now insist upon thorough inquiry before invest-The net result will be vastly beneficial to the insuring public. After the cloud has passed, well-managed companies will be stronger than before. The derelicts among companies; the concerns waterlogged by waste, extravagance, and worse; those which have followed bad methods; others which have fallen under the control of bad men-mere pirates or adventurers-must go down. There are good and bad companies, and now we are to enforce the law of the survival Waste and graft in the Equitable may have cost the policy-holders of that society a few millions; in the end the upheaval will save the American people millions by the score or hundred.

### THE PEOPLE'S STAKE IN INSURANCE.

It is high time the people were showing keener interest in the subject. One of the most marvelous phases of life in this marvelous country of ours is the growth of life insurance. It is not easy for the senses to grasp the big figures which tell of the extent to which life insurance enters the homes, the hopes, the expectations, the economies, the present and the future of the American masses.

Leaving out the so-called "industrial" insurance, and the assessment or fraternal-society insurance, there were in force in the United States at the end of 1904 5,050,000 life-insurance policies, and the total amount insured was \$10,235,-000,000, or an average of a little more than \$2,000 to the policy. Good authorities estimate that these five millions of policies are held by half as many individuals. Nearly one-half of all this vast insurance total is carried by three companies in New York City,—the New York Life, the Mutual Life, and the Equitable. Since December 31, 1904, the largest of these companies has passed the million - policies line and reached a total of above two billion dollars of outstanding insurance.

During 1904, all the "old line" companies

together collected premiums from policy-holders to the total of \$472,000,000, and enjoyed other income (interest and rentals) amounting to \$108,000,000 more. Their total income was, therefore, \$580,000,000, paralleling the income of the federal government. Not only are the people of the United States now paying into life-insurance treasuries \$9,000,000 a week, but the "old line" companies hold \$2,250,000,000 assets to protect outstanding policies or as surplus over legal-reserve liabilities. Adding industrial and fraternal insurance, fully \$2,500,000,000,000,—equal, approximately, to the national debt shortly after the Civil War,—is now held in trust in life-insurance treasuries.

Such is the stake which the people have in life insurance. Such is the magnitude of this sacred trust which reposes in the managers of our life-insurance institutions,—a trust for men who practise self-denial for their dependents, a trust for widows, orphans, and the needs of old age.

### SOURCE OF THE EQUITABLE SCANDAL.

Diligent investigation pursued through several months has satisfied me that the trouble in the Equitable may be accurately ascribed to three principal causes.

It was unfortunate that the society, though in essence mutual, as all life insurance should be, was actually and legally a stock company.

It was unfortunate that a majority of this stock was owned by a young man who had inherited it, and who was unfitted, both in character and experience, to resist the temptation to believe that through his stock control he fairly owned the whole concern, that his rights were paramount to those of the policy-holders. This is the spirit which pervaded the Equitable management before the upheaval,—the property belonged to the chief stockholders, and they could do as they liked with it short of violation of law and outright stealing.

The economic faults common to most American life insurance companies in this country were accentuated in the Equitable,—the writing at wholesale of deferred-dividend policies, which pile up the surplus to astounding totals, this surplus being money on hand above legal liabilities and offering constant temptation to companymanagers to manipulate it to their personal advantage. Among the chief stockholders of the Equitable there was a feeling that a mistake had been made in promising policy-holders that the surplus should be regarded as theirs, and that instead of holding it for the insurants, it should, in part, at least, he divided among the owners of the stock as the profits of the business. There

being no legal way to do this, the chief stock-holders and the managers of the property (being the same persons) seemed to have a belief that they were entitled to a "whack" at the surplus by indirect methods, since they were barred from a direct division. Hence exorbitant salaries, highly improper expenses, syndicates, pools, pensions, questionable loans, subsidiary trust companies, outside speculations carried by company funds, secret loans, and all the paraphernalia of petty graft and the modern "rake off" system in high finance. Legally, these practices may not have been stealing; morally, they were.

### THOMAS F. RYAN'S MOTIVES AND METHODS.

Astounding as were the revelations of Equitable malfeasance, the public was almost as much shocked when it learned that Mr. Hyde's majority stock had been sold to Thomas F. Ryan. That was a transaction which illustrated one of the worst phases of capital-stock life insurance. There need be no misunderstanding as to Mr. Ryan's purposes and his relations to the society. Not even Mr. Ryan's most generous friends will contend that altruism led him to pay \$2,500,000 for stock which by law can net him only \$3,500 a year. Mr. Ryan is not the worst man in the world; at the same time, he is not an altruist. He bought control of Equitable because it is his ambition to be the financial king of the metropolis,—an ambition which may yet be gratified. He wanted to add this great insurance concern, with its enormous assets and surplus, its vast loaning power, to his already long and important string of associated properties,-properties under his absolute control or in which he is an influential factor. A few years ago, Mr. Ryan was in the fourth or fifth rank of New York financiers. A year ago he was in the second class. He wanted to get into the first row. And he got there through his purchase of Equitable control. The dividends on that stock are a bagatelle. At the same time, it was a most excellent investment in prestige and power. It was worth far more than it cost. It was the successful coup of an extraordinarily shrewd and daring operator in corporations. If the Equitable were to go to pieces through loss of public confidence,—of which there is no serious danger,-and Mr. Ryan were to lose every dollar he put into the venture, he would still regard his bargain as a good one. A seat among the very high and mighty of finance is cheap at two and one-half millions.

### RYAN'S GREAT RESPONSIBILITY.

But how about the policy-holders who have an actual stake of more than four hundred mil-

lions of dollars in the future of the concern? How well or how ill are their interests conserved by the daring operator's deal? My investigations have convinced me that the Equitable Society is now in much better hands than it was before. The only success Mr. Ryan can make in that venture is an honorable, a real success. I believe he realizes this. A mere stock-jobbing success would be a failure. Deliberate wrecking and an attempt to grab the surplus of a woundup concern would be ethically if not statutorily criminal. As one of the first financiers of the country, and the one who is most rapidly growing, Mr. Ryan has assumed enormous responsibilities. He must meet them. If some of his past methods have been a little peculiar, the future must bring his vindication. In a wider way than ever before, he has become a servant of the public. He is on trial. He must make a success of the Equitable or stand to lose that which should be infinitely more precious to him than his two and one-half millions.

### PAUL MORTON'S HIGH AIM.

There is nothing in this world that practical men place more faith in than a really intelligent selfishness. Hence, there should be faith in Mr. Ryan's management of the Equitable. So far, and as far as we know, he has done well. He laid his plans with much cleverness. For trustees of the stock he chose the only living ex-President of the United States, a famous inventor and business man, and an eminent jurist. For the actual chief of the new management he selected Paul Morton, just out of President Roosevelt's cabinet. Mr. Morton knew nothing about life insurance, but he is an executive of rare ability, and an upright man. He has already shown what he can do, what he intends to do. He is reorganizing the shop, cleaning out the stables, reducing expenses, cutting salaries, dropping objectionable officers, putting new vigor and a more wholesome spirit into the entire management. Mr. Morton has but one ambition, and that is to make a record for himself by making a success of the Equitable. He avows his personal independence, his freedom from all restraint, his determination to devote his energies wholly to the interests of the society, his keen realization of the magnitude and sacredness of the trust reposed in him. Surely this is a vast improvement over the old régime. Already public confidence is slowly returning.

At the same time, the present control of the society is far from ideal. There is nothing to be gained by blinking the fact that despite the elaborate scheme of trusteeship, despite all the talk of Mr. Ryan selling his stock to the society

at cost and getting out, Mr. Ryan actually controls the property, and is likely to continue to control it. He names the new directors to be elected, or as many of them as he cares to name. His will is paramount when and wherein he cares to exert it. There is not the slightest reason to suppose that he intends to do anything wrong; but so long as he retains the power to do pretty much as he pleases there will inevitably be uneasiness. As yet Mr. Ryan has not the reputation that carries implicit confidence, but if given time he may acquire it.

### ONE-MAN POWER IN INSURANCE.

It goes without saying that a great life insurance company, carrying the savings and the hopes of from half a million to a million families, should not be under the rule of a single individual, and if there must be one-man rule, that man must be most carefully selected. Theoretically, all life insurance is mutual,—a banding together of so many men to help one another carry and provide against the hazards of life and the certainty of death or old age. But actually, save in exceptional cases, all life insurance has one-man rule, or at best the rule of a very small number of men. And it doesn't matter whether the company be a stock company or a so-called mutual company without capital stock. It comes to the same thing in the end. In stock companies, there is a monarchy, or at least an oligarchy, through the voting power of the stock. In mutual companies, one man, or a small group of men, seize the reins of power through proxy-manipulation. It is the same with the general run of corporations, railway and industrial. All the tendency is to centralization,-to concentration of power in the hands of a group, with one strong man at the head of the group. Theoretically, the properties are controlled by the owners of the stock; actually, the stockholders have little or nothing to say. They sign away their right in proxies running through terms of years. Until human nature is recast or the proxy system abolished, actual mutualization of life insurance must remain as it is, -a mere dream. Once a man or a group of men obtain control, they have at hand the means of continuing their reign.

#### MUTUALIZATION A MERE THEORY.

For example, Mr. Ryan might sell his stock to the Equitable Society to pave the way for mutualization; and then, if Mr. Morton continued to acknowledge Mr. Ryan as his financial chief and leader, as he doubtless would through loyal friendship, Mr. Ryan would still be the power behind the Equitable. Proxy control

would be substituted for stock control. Mr. Ryan could eat his two-and-one-half-million-dollar cake, and have it, too.

Probably there is no practicable way to give control of a life insurance company into the hands of its policy-holders or members. It might be done after a fashion by-means of mail voting, and by policy-holders' committees to nominate candidates for directors. But even then the old system, or something closely approximating it, would quickly come back. Policy-holders are numbered by the hundreds of thousands: they are indifferent or careless, or easily influenced by the men in power. In such a large mass, the centripetal force is necessarily great, the tendency to centralization strong and controlling. Besides, it is doubtful if actual mutualization would work improvement. Lifeinsurance management, like any other, requires experience, skill, and continuity if success is to be attained. Too long retention of power has its evils; but frequent changes of administration through the discontent of an insurant democracy or policy-holders' mass meetings would bring evils still greater.

### THE HIGH COST OF MANAGEMENT.

American life insurance needs reformation, and that speedily. It is not giving an adequate return for the money which insurants invest in it. This is due not so much to scandals of management like those which have recently come to light as to still more serious economic evils. Insurance costs much more in this country than it should cost,—far more than it costs abroad. This is because management is too extravagant and wasteful, and because of certain methods which are fundamentally faulty. We have already shown that last year the people of the United States paid in premiums amounting to \$472,000,000, and that the total income of all the companies,-every dollar of it the property of the holders of policies, because the interest earnings are simply the increment upon the policyholders' accumulations, -amounted to \$580,000, 000. What became of this golden stream? Into what channels was it diverted? What uses were made of it? Here is the answer in a few lines:

•	Amount.	Per cent.	
Paid to policy-holders, death claims, cash on surrender or maturity, annuities, dividends, etc. Expenses of management. Taxes and State fees. Income over disbursements.	\$240,000,000	41.38 21.89 1.90 34.83	
Totals	\$580,000,000	100,00	

Here we see that of every \$100 of income only \$41 was paid back to the policy-holders, while the actual expenses of management were nearly \$22, and almost \$24 including the taxes and necessary fees. Thirty-five dollars was carried over to assets or surplus. Inasmuch as the foregoing figures include all the companies in the country, it is only fair to say that the concerns which do a straight "old line" business on a fairly large scale and do not write any "industrial" policies show a somewhat smaller percentage of expenses to income. Taking the twenty-five leading companies, 18 per cent. would be a fair statement of their expense ratio. This

is just about double the cost of management in Great Britain, and it is almost three times the cost of carrying on the government industrial and mixed insurance in Germany.

### HOW THE MONEY GOES.

It is worth while to inquire why the expenses of American management should run about twice as great as the expenses of English management for the same line of business. The accompanying table, showing the expense cost of twenty-five leading American companies in 1904, with totals for the two preceding years, will tell the whole story:

GROSS EXPENSES IN 1904 PER \$1,000 INSURANCE IN FORCE, SHOWING PERCENTAGES OF EXPENSES TO PREMIUMS.

(From "The Brown Book of Life Insurance Economics,")

÷	Expense cost per \$1,000 insurance in force.	Per cent. of premiums received.	Commissions and agency expenses, per cent.	Administra- tive and clerical, per cent.	Taxes and fees, etc., per cent.
Etna	\$9.35	24.17	12.92	7.03	4.22
erkshire	7.90	20.20	11.27	5.51	3.42
Connecticut General	9.92	28.90	18.24	8.81	1.85
onnecticut Mutual	8.34	26.47	8.09	6.30	12.08
quitable	10.14	25.04	15.87	6.42	2.75
ermania	12.95	31.07	19.32	7.28	4.47
Iome	13.42	30.65	15.61	11.85	3.19
Ianhattan	14.43	41.35	21.46	12.51	7.38
fassachusetts Mutual	7.46	20.70	13.52	5.35	1.83
Intual	10.68	28.00	18.25	6.79	2.96
Iutual Benefit	7.64	20.13	11.04	5.30	3.79
ational	10.58	26.83	15.61	7.73	3.49
lew England	8.45	24.57	13.65	6.93	3,99
lew York	10.07	24.59	18.35	4.48	1.76
orthwestern	7.22	18.26	11.08	4.02	3.16
enn Mutual	9.27	24.33	14.50	5.63	4.20
hœnix Mutual	10.19	26.37	13.55	9.42	3.40
rovident Loan and Trust	8.23	20.63	9 55	7.39	3.69
rovident Savings	16.87	44.52	20.74	16.35	7.43
tate Mutual	8.67	22.38	14.30	4.98	3.10
ravelers	7.56	22.76	14.64	4.64	3.48
nion Central	8.50	24.08	14.07	7.96	2.05
nion Mutual	12.01	34.16	21.44	9.27	3.45
nited States	12.41	37.07	20.22	12.35	4.50
Vashington	16.49	42.33	21.33	12.20	8.80
Total 1904	\$9.80	25.11	15.92	6.11	3.08
Total 1903	10.00	25.69	16.08	6.45	3.16
Total 1902	9.98	25.76	16.15	6.31	3.30

### "RECKLESS AND WASTEFUL."

The reader will at once perceive that there is a vast difference between companies. A few companies keep their expense down to about 20 per cent. of the premium receipts, while others run to figures more than twice as great. It must be obvious to any observer that in a life-insurance concern which spends such enormous proportions of its income in the carrying on of the business there is small chance for the insurant to get an adequate return for his investment. That the business can be carried on at smaller cost is demonstrated by the experience of the British companies, whose expenses run only about 9 per cent. of their total income (against

an average of about 18 for the leading American companies), and by the fact that some of our American companies spend only half as much in expense as others. There is but one phrase which properly characterizes the management which spends 35 or 40 per cent. of premium income in expense, and that is, "reckless and wasteful."

#### FORCING "NEW BUSINESS."

It will be seen upon examination of the accompanying table that about three-fifths of all the expense of American companies is for commissions on new business and agency expenses. One of the greatest evils of management in this country is the craze for bigness, the insane

rivalry among managers of the largest companies to outdo all competitors in the increase of the amount of insurance in force. To such an extent has this craze been carried that millions upon millions have been virtually thrown away. Agents are stimulated by large commissions and other rewards to go out and drum up business regardless of whether it is to prove profitable to the company or to the insurants, or not. The rule has been, "Get the business at any cost." It is a remarkable fact that for every thousand dollars of insurance in force last year these twenty-five leading companies spent nearly six dollars and fifty cents in their efforts to get more insurance. The average premium paid on all insurance is approximately forty dollars per thousand. Ten dollars of that is paid out for expenses, and of the ten dollars more than six is devoted to the effort to coax in new policyholders. If the commission and agency expenses were cut down to a reasonable figure, and then a vigorous effort were made to reduce the administrative and clerical expense from its present relatively high level, there is no reason why American management should not make a much better showing as to the ratio of expenses to total income when compared with foreign companies. They might not be able to get down to the British standard of about 9 per cent., but they should be able to drop far below their present figure of 18 per cent.

Our American managers, or most of them, are not content to grow slowly, to follow a conservative policy like that pursued by the old Equitable, of London, and other conservative English companies. The London Equitable never spends any money for new business. Men who want policies must apply for them, and their applications are passed upon with a view to the desirability of the contract and to the ability of the applicant to carry out his part of it. Of course, the Equitable has grown slowly, but it has grown solidly; and its income is not squandered in a mad scramble for more policy-holders.

### SOME SIGNIFICANT FIGURES.

Last year, twenty-five leading companies of the United States wrote \$1,250,000,000 of new insurance. The total of their new policies during the last three years is \$3,500,000,000, or a billion more than all the insurance in force in the United States twenty years ago. The premiums paid on last year's new business of \$1,250,000,000 (or supposed to be paid) amounted to about \$50,000,000. How much did it cost to get the business? Nearly \$43,000,000, or 86 per cent. of the premium receipts. About

\$32,000,000 went for commissions to solicitors, medical examiners, etc., and \$11,000,000 more for established agencies, rents, advertising, printing, etc., after deducting 25 per cent. fairly chargeable to the handling of old business. These are startling figures. The cost of new business is steadily increasing. Two years ago it was only 79 per cent. of the premium receipts. Now it is 86 per cent. If it goes on increasing, in a short time all of the first year's income will have to go for getting the policy written. That is already the case with six of the twenty-five companies, and one company paid out for new business all the money that the new business brought in, and 31 per cent. besides. In other words, money belonging to a man already a policy-holder was used to coax another man to take out a policy.

### MUSHROOM INSURANCE.

It is obvious that life insurance companies, like other business and financial concerns, ought not to stand still. They must grow. In life insurance there is a peculiar reason why new business should be secured. If no new policyholders come in, in time the death claims will reach proportions calculated to wind up the concern. But in securing growth company-managers should stay within the boundaries of reason. There is no sense in expending huge sums for new business that does not "stick," and which therefore is not worth writing. Last year twenty-five leading companies wrote \$1,250,000,-000 new insurance. But they lost nearly onehalf as much through other causes than death or maturity,—that is, by surrenders and lapses. In short, thousands upon thousands of men are induced to take out more insurance than they can afford to carry,-for the solicitors and agents are eager for commissions,—and after one or two payments the policies are permitted to lapse. The only gainer by such business is the solicitor, or agent. The company gains nothing, the insurant gains nothing, save that his risk is carried for a year or two years, a return to him worth about one-fifth what he pays for it. other large class of policies are carried long enough to attain a surrender value, and here the holders get a little more in return when they drop out, though the difference is one of degree, not of principle. Every year, millions of dollars are taken in this way from the pockets of people who can ill afford the loss. Last year, the twenty-five companies actually expended an average of \$100 to gain \$1,259 of insurance in force; and that \$1,259 of "good" business brings the company in a net income of about \$45 a year as long as it lasts. The amount of insur-

ance actually gained per hundred dollars spent for new business is constantly diminishing. Only two years ago, it was \$1,513 per hundred dollars; now it is only \$1,259. Several companies, and important ones at that, actually show net losses of insurance in force, despite their enormous expenditures for new business. Such companies are on the way to ruin. Yet the State insurance officials seem to be wholly unable to deal with them in an adequate manner. The mania for bigness, the craze for forcing the business beyond its safe and natural limits, is a tremendous evil in American life insurance; and if the managers will not reform of their own accord the law should interpose and compel them to do so.

#### THE EVIL OF REBATES.

Another evil incident to this hot-housing process is the premium rebate. In some States, rebates are illegal, and policies rebated may be declared void. Theoretically, all managers frown upon rebates. Actually, nearly all companies know that rebates are given by their agents, and they wink at the sin. In one respect the insurance rebate is more to be condemned than the railway rebate. It is given to men who "know the ropes," to smart business or professional men who are aware that agents are so eager for business that they will cut the first year's premium 30 or 40 per cent., if necessary. Most of these insurants can afford to pay full premiums. But the poor fellows, the mechanics and farmers and others who are not in touch with affairs, usually pay the full premium, which they can ill afford to do. This discrimination in favor of well-to-do insurants and against men of small means seeking to provide protection for their families out of their slender salaries is unjust, indecent, and should be made criminal.

To such a pass has it come in this mad scramble for new business that in every city may be found many men who carry their life insurance simply from year to year. By inducing several companies to bid against one another they secure great reductions of the first-year premiums, and at the end of the year permit their policies to lapse and look about for other companies willing to take them on at the cut rate. In this way they carry their insurance at much less than it would cost to take out policies and maintain them year after year.

### AN EXPENSIVE AGENCY SYSTEM.

It is true that most insurance agents and solicitors work hard, and only the more fortunate of them earn large incomes. But there are too many agents in the field; the soliciting business

is overdone. Thousands of men who have been unfortunate in other lines go into life-insurance soliciting, and most of them find it hard enough to get along. We need throw no stones at the industrious solicitors; just now they have troubles enough of their own. Our quarrel is with the managers who place such vast armies of agents in the field to drum for business, making it difficult for any to do well and rendering it necessary to bolster them up with large commissions on what business they are able to write. The really fortunate men in the soliciting line are the general agents who control certain territory and get a commission on every dollar of business that passes through their offices; who get, not only their first year's commission, but each year thereafter take out 5 or 74 per cent. commission on every renewal premium. There are general agents whose income rises above a hundred thousand dollars a year from renewals alone. Last year, one New York company paid out \$750,000 buying up the equities of agents in such renewals. All this money,—the first commissions of 50 per cent., usually, the renewal commissions of from 5 to 71 per cent., or the purchase of equities therein,—comes out of the pockets of the policy-holders. It is not with their own money, but with the money of their members, that the managers satiate their appetite for bigness.

Every one understands that the companies cannot abandon their agency system. They must solicit new business and have the machinery to look after old business. But there should be fewer agencies, with smaller original commissions, and with the renewal commissions wiped out entirely. Managers say that if they were to stop soliciting they would get no new business. They declare it is one of the peculiarities of human nature, at least in this country, that if a man builds a house or a store he will at once seek fire insurance upon it. But the most valuable thing in that store or domestic establishment, the heart and brain and moving force of it,—his own life,—he will neverthink of assuring or protecting unless some agent get after him and beat it into his mind. There may be truth in this; and yet it is highly probable men do not voluntarily apply for life insurance because they have been educated to the present system,-the system in which all the initiative comes from the company side. Withdraw that, and it stands to reason that many prudent Americans, believers in life insurance, and a large share of them needing it for special family or business reasons, would apply on their own motion. At any rate, there is somewhere between the two extremes a happy mean of moderation and prudence which life insurance management should endeavor to find.

#### DEFERRED-DIVIDEND POLICIES.

Another and most serious economic weakness of modern life insurance as it is practised in this country is the large extent to which the deferred-dividend policy has been written. Of late years, policies based upon this principle have constituted the great bulk of all the new business put in force. We have not the space to enter upon an elaborate or technical discussion of this question. Indeed, such is not necessary to make the whole matter clear. The deferreddividend policy is essentially a policy in which protection for the family or dependents is mingled with investment or savings accumulation. The great argument in favor of it is this: "In the old form of insurance, you had to die to win. In this new form, you may lay up something for yourself, for your declining years. Thus, you get protection for your family during the term; and if you live out the term which you choose, -say, twenty years, -then you have something comfortable for your old age."

Naturally, the premiums on such policies are higher than on ordinary life policies. In the first place, they are term policies, and the total paid in must be paid in fewer installments. Then there must be a margin over the actual cost of carrying, so that the company may have the use of the policy-holder's money through a period of years with which to accumulate the increment that is to give him the handsome results of which the solicitor talks so glibly when the business is sought. In the simplest statement, the company takes from the insurant so much for protection and so much more as a savings investment in annual deposits throughout the term, usually twenty years. In case of death within twenty years, the insurant's estate or beneficiaries get the face value of the policy. If he surrender the policy at any time during the term, he gets back a part of the sum he has paid in excess of the actual cost of carrying, but not all. The remainder is taken from him and given to policies which mature. Hence, this form of insurance is generally known as semitontine. At the end of the period, if the insured survive, he is promised, in the form of "estimates," not in binding pledges, usually, what his returns are to be. If these "estimates" were met by performance, the return would be about half what it should be,—say, an average of 11 or 2 per cent. upon the sums in excess of actual need which the insurant has paid in and the company has had the use of at interest compounded,

### DISAPPOINTMENT AT RESULTS.

But in the great majority of cases,—hundreds of actual policy results have been cited to me since I began my investigation of insurance,the insurants are disappointed. They get from their matured policies all the way from 5 to 25 per cent. less than the "estimates." All over the country arises an outcry of disappointment with the results attained from these combined protection and investment policies, many of which are now maturing. Some pitiful cases have been brought to my attention,—men who have been compelled to borrow the money with which to meet premiums, and by this means and all sorts of self-denials carrying their policies through to maturity with faith in the "estimates" made them years ago and relying upon their expected "results" for something to ease their old age. But when they come to the critical and long-awaited moment,-the hour of cashing in,-they find they are to get far less than they have been led to believe they were to get, and that, after paying off their loans, they have not a penny left to bless themselves with.

A man wants insurance for the protection of his family. The agent convinces him that he should take out a policy which gives him, not only protection, but which saves up something for his own declining years. So he takes a twenty-year semi-tontine policy. The actual cost of carrying the mortality risk upon his life, assuming him to be of the average of all insured persons, is about \$13 per year throughout the twenty years. It is less at the start, of 'course, and more at the end, but \$13 is the average for the term. In a purely mutual society, without expenses, this would be his annual premium per thousand. But of course there must be expenses. So his premium is "loaded" up to \$25 per thousand, the additional \$12 covering the expenses less the value of his money, of which the company is to have the use at compound interest throughout the period. The outcome is that the insurant pays, roughly, \$25 per thousand for protection and expenses and \$15 additional as an investment of his savings. At the end of the twenty years he should get back the value of his \$15 per year at compound interest. But he never or rarely does. And the result is almost invariably disappointing because of obvious conditions which make disappointment inevitable.

### GOOD FOR PROTECTION, POOR SAVINGS-BANKS.

What chance would a man have to secure good results from a deposit of \$40 per year in a savings-bank if the solicitor who induces him to

make the deposits were to get 50 per cent. of the first year's deposit for merely carrying the money down to the bank? And then if the solicitor or his principal, the general agent, were to get 7½ per cent. of each subsequent deposit for doing a like service? And if, including those "rake-offs" already mentioned, the entire expense of the company management were to amount to 25 per cent. of all deposits each year?

This is approximately what happens to the savings features of life insurance. The man who carries such a policy is bound to be disap-The company is not pointed at the results. organized to do that sort of business and do it advantageously. Its expenses are too high; it allows too much to the solicitors who bring in Insurance for protection is the depositors. firmly fixed in the American faith. We all believe in it. Few men are rich enough or secure enough in their fortune and income to be able prudently to carry their own life risks. They must join a great society to mutualize the burden. For this privilege they have to pay a pretty stiff price,-at least 25 per cent. more than they should pay, -simply because managing cost is too high. But they feel that they must have insurance; that they must have protection for their dependents; and, under protest, they pay the bill. In the satisfaction they get out of it, in the knowledge that their wives and children are protected against want, they find compensation even if their intelligence tells them that the cost is unnecessarily high. But insurance as a savings-bank is another question. It is not a good savings bank. It cannot be as life insurance is now conducted.

### THE WORST FORM OF INSURANCE.

Hence, there has arisen a great demand for abandonment of the deferred-dividend policy, or for dividends payable annually, or at least once in a few years. Wisconsin, under the leadership of an able insurance superintendent, has enacted a law requiring division of the surplus once in five years at the furthest. Other States are likely to take similar action. Public opinion is turning against the deferred-dividend policy. Leading companies are preparing to abandon it, or at least to minimize it. Heretofore, some of them have given their agents higher commissions on this class of policies than on ordinary life,-a premium upon the worst form of insurance,—and the natural result has been that agents have pressed it upon the public. The managers did this deliberately, well aware of the economic weakness of the method, because they wanted to build up their already great assets and surplus. The deferred-

dividend policy has largely contributed to heaping up the enormous assets of American companies, now amounting to more than two billions of dollars. Vastly more than any other form of insurance has it piled up surpluses or special funds (accumulations above the legal reserve held to protect policies) amounting in 42 important companies to the amazing total of \$320,-000,000. Of these 42 companies, 22 are capital stock companies, and their surpluses,—or special funds as they are called in some cases,aggregate \$137,000,000. As to a part of this vast sum, there still exists the unsettled question whether it belongs to the policy-holders or to the stockholders; that is, legally, for in morals there is no question whatever that every dollar of it is the property of the policy-holders, who have contributed to it from their toil and sweat and self-denial.

### PREMIUMS SHOULD BE REDUCED.

Under any conservative system of insurance the companies must take more from their policyholders than the actual expense and mortality cost. There must be a margin for contingencies and fluctuations. Hence, any form of policy inevitably embraces a small percentage of savings on the part of the insurant. The deferred-dividend policy simply makes that percentage much higher than it should be. It magnifies the savings feature. Better than dividends returned annually, or every five years, which means simply that the companies pay back that which they have collected over and above what they actually needed, would it be not to take the money from the policy-holders in the first place, but to leave it in their pockets. Of course, this cannot be done absolutely. There must be a small margin. But American life insurance is now more than half a century old. It should by this time be settled into safe and sure channels, statistical, financial, actuarial. . There is no longer any valid excuse for collecting premiums ranging more than a few per cent. above the combined mortality and expense cost, and the latter should be materially reduced.

As for the deferred-dividend policy and all of that kidney, embracing savings features in addition to protection, they are false and injurious. They have outlived their usefulness, and they should go. Public opinion and the best insurance leadership is turning against them. There is only one word to be said in their favor, and that word I shall say. Many men are so circumstanced and constituted that they will not save. They live up to their incomes. If an insurance company does not lead them to save something year by year, every penny will be

wasted. By inducing such men to take out policies with savings features attached, and then through the desire to protect their families put something aside for the future, the deferred-dividend policy has helped thousands of families to an accumulation, whereas without it there would have been nothing but waste from year to year. Obviously, it is better for a man who can save something to do it, even if he has to pay a smart agent a commission for showing him how, than to go on saving nothing whatever.

### REFORMS ARE COMING.

American life insurance costs too much because management is too expensive. I think I am able to say that during the next five years the managers themselves will take the lead in making insurance cheaper. The deferred-dividend policy is to be gradually pushed into the background. Economies are to be introduced. The vast accumulations are to be paid back a little more rapidly than heretofore to the people whose property they are. At the present time, American life insurance companies have a loaning power of enormous extent, and they are piling up their assets at the rate of more than two hundred millions yearly. It is high time to check that crescendo movement and to start in the other direction. Already big insurance companies are tempting prizes to promoters, corporation manipulators, and speculators. Nearly all the large companies in New York are in Wall Street groups and actually under the direction of cliques of bankers or financiers. The Equitable is not the only stock company whose shares are held at a valuation of from five to twenty times their worth figured on their legal dividend earnings, and the fact that financiers are willing to pay fancy prices for them indicates unmistakably that control of the companies is worth having for reasons not directly connected with the welfare of the policy-holders.

Just now life insurance management in New York City is more or less under a cloud. My investigations have convinced me that there are other companies besides the Equitable in which evil practices have obtained with the knowledge, and in many cases with the connivance, of the responsible managers. It would do no good to mention names. But it is most earnestly to be hoped that the New York legislative committee will go to the bottom of every company's affairs, learn the whole truth, unpleasant though it may be, and apply the proper remedy, in legislation that shall better safeguard the interests of the millions of men, women, and children whose future is involved in this "sacred trust." There

are companies in New York City which should be wound up by the State authorities for the simple reason that they are not fit to go on. The longer they continue, the more harm will they do. The same thing is true of quite a number of small companies scattered throughout the country,—concerns which by no possibility can give adequate return to their members, and which exist, apparently, for no other purpose than to afford fat pickings for the men who are in control of them.

### SHALL WE HAVE FEDERAL REGULATION?

The remedy for existing ills? It is not easy to prescribe. Undoubtedly the tendency of the times is strongly toward federal regulation and control. It is safe to say that in his next annual message to Congress, President Roosevelt will renew his former recommendation that the Congress should inquire into the feasibility of federal legislation regulating interstate insurance. He will probably go further now and recommend actual legislation designed to test. the question of Congressional jurisdiction before the Supreme Court. On several occasions in the past the Court held that insurance was not commerce. If this decision stand, of course, the Congress is debarred from action. At the time the Court so held, its tendency was toward narrow construction, while of late years the tendency has been the other way,-toward broad interpretation of federal powers in dealing with interstate commerce. Hence, there is at least ground for hope that a federal insurance law may be enacted that will run the gantlet of the high tribunal. Besides, the Supreme Court has been known to reverse itself. It is also considered possible that insurance policies may be regarded, if not commerce, as the instruments of commerce, and thus fall under federal jurisdiction in line with one of the more important of the series of interstate-commerce judgments of the last ten years.

### WEAKNESS OF STATE SUPERVISION.

President Roosevelt's feeling, we may be sure, is that insurance regulation by the federal government is naturally, and must in time inevitably become, a part of that policy of his which has occupied so much of his and the public's attention since he entered the White House,—the policy of bringing all public corporations which transact business throughout the country under the influence of federal statutes. If he decide to make a campaign for such control of life insurance, as he is quite likely to do, he will not lack popular support. Throughout the country there is a conviction that we shall never have

competent inspection and regulation of these companies till the work is done from Washington rather than from the State capitals. State inspection is generally involved in politics, and very few States have a competent life-insurance administration. Too often State inspection is a mere auditing of books, perfunctorily, and a certificate that they are straight, without so much as a glance at all that lies underneath and behind the bookkeeping. In New York, the most important of all the States, since nearly one-half of all the life insurance of the country is carried on within its borders, the inspection is notoriously influenced by political, and even by personal, considerations. The public would never have known of the malfeasance in the Equitable if the men who were behind the greedy schemes had not quarreled among themselves; the State insurance superintendent would never have found it out. The State superintendent did prosecute a vigorous inquiry when public opinion had once aroused, but even then his zeal was ascribed by many to the fact that the man who had bought control of the stock is a possible political rival of the present "boss" of the State, while an eminent financier and friend of that "boss" had himself tried to buy the majority stock and failed.

There are plenty of life-insurance managers of influence who proclaim their friendliness to federal supervision. Therefore, it would seem an easy task to secure that great step forward, provided the constitutional difficulties can be got over. But the truth is that most of the managers who profess to favor federal supervision do so only because they are weary of the multitudinous and diverse State laws and exactions, and because they hope to substitute federal control and thus have but a single government agency to reckon with. The sort of federal supervision they actually favor would not meet the wishes nor the interests of the policyholders. They want an easy-going, complacent federal supervision. The public wants laws regulating insurance companies like those which govern national banks, and an inspection and supervision like those provided in the national banking act. This is an effective supervision, on the whole, far removed from political interference. It is as nearly perfect as any scheme of espionage and regulation can be made. It is an inspection and control with which national-bank officers dare not trifle. If it were applied to life insurance and to trust companies, the managers of life insurance companies and trust companies would at once suppress many of the shady practices now all too common among them.

### THE PRESENT DUTY OF POLICY-HOLDERS.

Frankly, it seems a long road to such federal supervision. There are many obstacles in the way. While waiting for it, there is no better remedy to apply to life-insurance ills than the power of public opinion. Policy-holders should continue the alertness into which they have been roused by the Equitable disclosures. They should not again go to sleep in fancied security. It is within their power to bring pressure to bear upon the managers. The public should first inform itself as to insurance and get out from behind the cloud of ignorance and indifference. Then it should refuse insurance which is not offered in sound form and under wholesome auspices. It should frown upon extravagance and wastefulness. It should eschew the deferreddividend policy. It should demand cheaper insurance, made cheaper through retrenchment and economy. It should stir up State inspectors to more zealous work. Policy-holders have a tremendous stake in the success of life insurance, and if they will rouse themselves they can do much to protect themselves. They can reach the general agents with their demands for reform. They can reach the managers themselves through letter-writing and through vigilant exercise of their proxy rights in all mutual companies. They can bring pressure to bear upon their newspapers to give the public information about life insurance, its economic faults as well as its sensational scandals. They can promote a public opinion and an intelligent public discrimination between good life insurance companies and bad ones which will bring the managers to their All life-insurance managers are afraid senses. of public opinion. Those who manage good companies fear they will be classed with the bad ones. And the bad ones are trembling lest they be found out.

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

## PAUL MORTON,-HUMAN DYNAMO.

A MONG all the newspaper and magazine sketches of Paul Morton, the new head of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, nothing more readable has appeared than the article contributed to the October Cosmopolitan by Edwin Lefèvre, the author of "Wall Street Stories," who characterizes Mr. Morton as a typical man of the West and endows his hero with few or no attributes not shared by countless other Western men of similar antecedents and training.

He is a Westerner. Not enough Eastern men know what that means. Hetty Green, whose son lives in Texas, and who has traveled extensively and lived long enough and made money enough to know what she is talking about, said once: "In the West, men are bad only on the surface. In Wall Street, they are bad clear through." In the West, big men do things and wish to keep on doing them, and other people hope they will. In the East, big men do things, and wish to keep on doing them, and other people pray they won't. In the West, men big and little want no favors, only a square deal. In the East, the big men, in the matter of deal, want nothing but favors from political "friends" and presidents of financial institutions, and of all the Commandments keep in mind only the eleventh, "Thou shalt not be found out." Paul Morton came from the West. There he helped to rehabilitate the Atchison. rebates or no rebates. He is now in the East. Let us see whether he will rehabilitate the Equitable, Wall Street or no Wall Street.

### A WESTERN RAILROAD MAN.

Paul Morton is the second son of the late J. Sterling Morton, President Cleveland's Secretary of Agriculture and the originator of "Arbor Day," who was a Nebraska pioneer long before the days of railroads west of the Missouri River. As Mr. Lefèvre puts it, Paul Morton "began being a hustler and a Westerner long before he was born."

Paul Morton, the second son, is forty-eight years old. When he reached the ripe age of sixteen, his father offered him the choice between going to college and going to work. Paul elected to go to work. Why? Because his elder brother had gone into the banking business and was making a success of it. It was an example worthy of emulation. The full force of Paul Morton's decision is not grasped until the unintelligent reader is informed that this elder brother was a year and a half older than Paul. Joy Morton was seventeen and a half, and already had done enough to show he was walking successward. So Paul Morton went to work for the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad. It is the false

A MONG all the newspaper and magazine sketches of Paul Morton, the new head of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, nothing dollars a month and borrowed five dollars a month



MR. PAUL MORTON.

from his father in order to pay his board at a decent eating-house. On his twenty-first birthday he was made assistant general freight agent of the Burlington . system. He had a phenomenal memory,-nobody consulted the rate schedule when he was around; they merely asked him and he told them. His grasp on the traffic business was remarkable. At twenty-five he was made general passenger agent. Not long afterward he was appointed general freight agent. In 1887, at the time of the strike, he was the Burlington's official spokesman for publication. Nobody, not the president nor the vice-presidents nor the directors, was permitted to say a word to the newspapers. The reporters were directed to Paul Morton if they wished to ask questions, and he answered them. He was not a college man; the Burlington is his alma mater. You would not think of a railroad as a training-school for diplomats, but that is what Morton was at thirty,-a competent railroad man and a diplomat. He "did things;" also he could talk intelligently. Newspaper men who have had occasion to listen to older and more prominent men, men of wide experience in various walks of life, will know what a man of thirty must be who talked day after day and never lied and never equivocated, and yet never made a break. That's the remarkable thing about Western men who have not had a collegiate education. They have self-reliance, keen observation, a contempt for pettiness, a remarkable power of assimilating forms of polite diction even while preserving a picturesque individuality of spoken speech; also the American sense of humor. All this and the ability to work,—veritable human dynamos.

Paul Morton stayed with the Burlington until 1890, when he went with the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company as vice-president. When the presidency of the reorganized Atchison road was offered to Mr. Ripley, he accepted, provided the directors would make Paul Morton vice-president and his active assistant. He knew Morton, knew what he could do, and knew what he had done while they were both on the Burlington.

The Atchison had been reorganized, but it needed what was far harder to accomplish,-rehabilitation. It was out of a receiver's hands, to be sure, but it did not pay its debts promptly, and it did not keep its promises. It granted rebates, as the other roads did, but it did not make good when the time came, not because it was wrong to give rebates, but because it needed the tainted money. It had no credit. It was unpopular with shippers. Paul Morton's position was, as he himself described it, that of business-getter for the road; and he got his share. To be sure, in 1896 the industrial pendulum had touched the lowest point and was about to swing the other way. It was practically the beginning of the end of the period of depression. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896, the gross earnings were \$28,999,597, the expenses of operating \$22,071,275, and net earnings of less than \$7,000,000. Five years later, the gross income was \$54,474.823, the operating expense \$32,262,945, and the net earnings \$22,211,875. It was a misfortune to be a holder of Atchison stocks in 1896, and great luck in 1901. Its adjustment bonds were selling then at thirty cents on the dollar. They have sold at their face value since.

### THE GOSPEL OF WORK.

Young Morton rose rapidly in the railroad office where he began as office boy at sixteen. At twenty three he married; at forty-six he was a grandfather. He is a big man, tall and well built, but quick and decisive in his movements. He has worked hard all his life. Mr. Lefèvre classifies him among the "men who do things, do them well, and do them for a salary."

Morton is never happy unless he is working; the busier he is, the happier he feels. He is of that blessed Western type of man who will tackle any job and cannot rest until it is done. To leave it unfinished is to be made unhappy, uncomfortable, conducive to insomnia; and it is scientific work, good, sound brain work, and not mere gluttony for labor,—the kind of man, in short, who will invent labor-saving devices, not to save labor, but to enable the same number of men to accomplish twice as much as before. He tries to finish all his day's work every day, and the amount he has to do is enormous. He has relays of secretaries. He

works all day in his office, but there are too many people who must be seen and listened to, who use up much time. There are letters to write and instructions to give, so after leaving his office he goes home, dines, and an hour afterward is working, reading letters, dictating answers, et cetera, until midnight. In the morning, before he starts for his office, he has kept another secretary busy an hour or two. This gospel of work may be the gospel of a fanatic or of a Russell Sage, but there is this to be said in extenuation, that Morton is not paid on a percentage basis, nor by piecework, and that he is not only a very clear-headed man, but a very strong one, physically, who has always been a human dynamo. To be sure, he is now receiving a salary of two hundred and sixty-six dollars per working day. He doubtless earns it. Other presidents of life insurance companies receive more. They may be abler. They will not work harder. The day's routine of the man must be interesting. How can he work to entitle him to say he can earn more than fifty clerks? What can he do? He is the head of the company; he is the foreman. He gets work out of others. He obtains results. The ability to do this is rare. He has it.

### MR. MORTON AS A DIPLOMAT.

Mr. Morton was the chief "business-getter" for the Atchison, and he had to be a "business politician, a railroad diplomat."

I should say that the diplomacy of Paul Morton might lack the finesse of certain Eastern financiers, but that it is more refreshing, more direct, and accomplishes its object probably more completely, and certainly more quickly, than the other kind. His is the Western attitude, which assumes that the majority of men are good. He can be a good fellow, therefore, because he is normal and healthy and an optimist, with a sense of humor. His diplomacy in business is that of the Westerners, to wit: "The majority of people are square. I'm square. I'll tell the truth bluntly and I'll hear the truth bluntly. If we agree, very well. If we can't agree on all points, let us agree on as many as we can." Such men have no time to waste in sparring for an opening or in artistically producing erroneous impressions. They don't do business in a subtle way, nor by indirection, because they have so much to do before they die. Men have fooled Morton time and again. No one man has ever fooled him twice. He bears this in mind when he is "sizing up" strangers, for he is not ashamed if one fools him once. But the second time the man tries he might better have tackled a live wire. I thought once he might be vindictivehe was so utterly without the sentimentalism that even Wall Street men sometimes show. I said: "I'd like to ask you a question. If I knew you intimately, I should not have to ask it. But there is no use in asking unless you answer with absolute frankness."

"Ask it," he said, very quickly.

"How do you feel toward people who get the better of you?"

"My fault for letting them. Why feel?"

"If a man should say something mean about you?"
"Look here. Successis like the sunshine,—it brings
the rattlesnakes out. They can't help being rattlesnakes, can they? What's the use of getting angry?"
"Revenge?"

nevenge:

"Bosh!"

# THE COST OF LIFE INSURANCE.

ONE of the most important contributions to the insurance discussion is an article on "The Cost of Life Insurance," by Allan H. Willett, of Brown University, in the Political Science Quarterly (New York) for September. This is a scholarly survey of the whole subject, with valuable tables exhibiting the expenses of twenty-four leading American life insurance companies in the year 1903.

On the question of "deferred dividend" policies, which is discussed elsewhere in this number of the Review of Reviews by Mr. Walter Wellman, Mr. Willett says:

Such policies are falling into deserved disrepute and are in direct violation of sound insurance principles, introducing an additional element of uncertainty into a business whose one purpose should be to eliminate uncertainty. The claim sometimes put forward that they tend to equalize the cost of insurance by taking from those who die early, and so pay few premiums, and giving to those who live long and pay many premiums, is based on an entirely erroneous conception of the principles of insurance. The premium pays for protection, not for the indemnity. In the case of levelpremium life insurance, so far is it from being true that those who die early ought to be taxed for the benefit of those who live long that they are the very ones who are paying an excessive price for their protection, measured by the excess of the level premium over the natural premium at their age.

The funds left in the hands of insurance companies by holders of deferred-dividend and semi-tontine policies are in a somewhat anomalous position. It seems to be the legal rule that when these funds have been definitely apportioned by formal act, and each man's share placed to his credit on the books of the company, the title passes to the policy-holder; but where the funds are carried as an undivided deferred-dividend reserve the individual policy-holder has no legal claim to any share of it. At the same time, in the State of New York, where a special tax is imposed upon the surplus of life insurance companies, the companies insist upon calling this reserve a liability, and their

claim has been allowed. Not the least objection to the deferred-dividend form of policy is the fact that it increases unnecessarily the funds in the hands of the insurance companies and leaves a wide margin of available resources at their disposal.

COST, AS WELL AS PREMIUMS, SHOULD BE LOWER.

After a detailed study of all the elements entering into the cost of modern life insurance, this writer concludes:

Whether we reach our results by an analysis of the elements of the income of insurance companies and the relation of each element to the purpose to which it is theoretically assigned or examine directly the gain and loss account of the insurance companies, the same conclusion is forced upon us, that the premium rates are unnecessarily high. We have seen that the average experience of twenty-four companies shows a saving on mortality of over 20 per cent., an excess of interest earnings of nearly or quite 1 per cent., and a generous profit from lapsed and surrendered policies, while the loading is just sufficient to cover the cost of carrying on the business. The gain and loss exhibit indicates that but for the depreciation of securities during the year 1903 the insurance operations of that year would have brought in to the companies a profit of more than forty million dollars to be returned to the policy-holders or added to the surplus. With no improvement in the methods and practices of insurance companies, a reduction of 20 per cent. or 25 per cent. in premium rates is possible for a company managed with average care and efficiency, and is in every way desirable.

But to bring insurance rates down to the present cost level is only half enough. The cost itself ought to be lowered. It is demonstrable that some of the practices of insurance companies tend to increase their mortality loss, that a higher net rate of interest could be secured on their investments, and that the cost of administration is often extravagantly high. Improvement in any of these particulars would materially lower the cost of insurance, and make possible a further reduction in premium rates, resulting in a wider utilization of the benefits of insurance by people of small or moderate income.

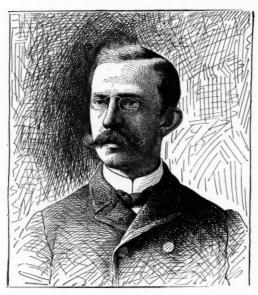
# SHALL THE DOLLAR'S PEDIGREE DEFEAT ITS DESTINY?

SUCH is Dr. Graham Taylor's phrasing of the question involved in the resolution bearing on "tainted money" offered by Dr. Washington Gladden for discussion at the Seattle meeting of the American Board last month. Dr. Taylor devotes to this subject an editorial in the September number of his magazine, the Commons (Chicago). This expression of opinion derives added significance from the fact that Dr. Taylor holds the professorship of sociology in Chicago Theological Seminary. In his view, the ques-

tion at issue is the purely practical one for administrators of trust funds,—"how far and how long are personal qualities so inherent in property as to involve moral responsibility for its acquisition upon the part of those who would hold it in trust for public use?"

The line of Dr. Taylor's argument is indicated by the following questions:

Are trustees of permanent institutions, who are intrusted with causes that serve the future, warranted in judging only the personal antecedents of accumu-



DR. GRAHAM TAYLOR.

lated resource? Have they no right to regard property as a social product, to the creation and accumulation of which many others besides its legal possessor have contributed? Are they not bound to look further than to what may just now be thought of its present owner? Do not the interests of the future with which they are intrusted demand that they anticipate the changed attitude which a day may bring forth toward the property applicable to public use? If it be argued that money unworthily acquired may not be solicited or accepted from its acquirer, does it not follow that it is not to be

received at his bequest? Can it, then, neither be given nor bequeathed by him for good purposes, but only for evil ends? Thus to create vested funds for perpetuating wrong by refusing to divert them toward the right seems to be the very self-stultification of those who hold in trust any future good.

Dr. Taylor holds that the precedent sought to be established by the protest against receiving money "generally believed to have been made by methods morally reprehensible and socially injurious" would in all consistency and justice require the investigation and judgment of each gift.

If this is conceded to be impracticable, the income from certain ostracized sources would surely have to be designated, traced, and distinguished from that produced by other unquestionable sources of gain. But every one knows how indistinguishably the joint product identifies its constituent resources. This is the fact even in the case at issue. Moreover, the pedigree of the penny, as well as the lineage of the dollar, would prove to be a very equivocal heritage from a very mixed ancestry if the income of every institution or person were subjected to a strict genealogical test.

If, then, it is possible neither to discriminate between individual donors nor to eradicate the inconsistency by any concerted effort that goes to its source, the conclusion is that administrators of public trust funds are compelled to decide only whether the acceptance of money involves any preventable compromise with evil. It is their duty to put to good public use such property as can be accepted without expressly condoning any offense of acquisition, or without abjuring their right to condemn it.

### WHAT ARE PORTO RICO'S NEEDS?

I N the recent discussion of Porto Rico's situation more emphasis has been placed on the island's alleged political ills than on those of an economic nature. An article written by the late Gen. Roy Stone and published in the North American Review for September attempts to show how the decline in Porto Rico's export trade and the increase in the number of unemployed are to be traced to unfortunate legislation enacted by our Congress on the organization of civil government, after nearly two years of military occupation.

General Stone begins with a statement of conditions under the military government, with which he was especially familiar.

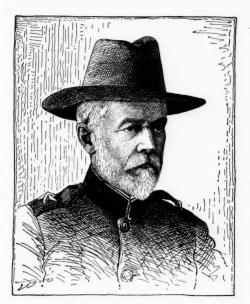
Our occupation of Porto Rico began in 1898, and the military government held control for nearly two years. The greatest physical need of the island was means of transportation. It had no railroads but a fragmentary belt line, which did not serve the interior districts, and only about one hundred and fifty miles of wagon road for three thousand five hundred square miles of territory. The fine fruits of the interior rotted where they fell, and only such crops were raised as would bear transport by pack-train or human porterage. But the military government was anxious to avoid scandals regarding franchises, and it discouraged all railroadbuilding, although abundant capital offered itself for that purpose. Indeed, the governor volunteered his official opinion that railroads would never pay in an island so small and unproductive; not knowing, apparently, that at that moment almost the best-paying railroad in the world was in a small tropical island, which had only a twentieth of the population of Porto Rico, and almost no production at all till after the road was built.

#### LEGISLATION BY CONGRESS.

But the opposition to railroads by the military government was as nothing to the paralyzing obstruction later interposed by the Congress of the United States. The "Foraker law" organizing the civil government

was framed with the advice and assistance of many well-chosen representatives of the commercial and political interests of Porto Rico, and when it was passed these representatives went home contented and full of hope for the future of their beloved island.

The Foraker Act became a law on April 12, 1900, and for a few weeks the prospects of Porto Rico were so bright that thousands of Americans were drawn toward the island, and many American and European capitalists turned their attention that way. Preparations were made for investments which would have much more than replaced the Spanish capital withdrawn and would have given work at good wages to every man on the island. This, with the good government established,



THE LATE GEN. ROY STONE.

would have made the Porto Ricans the happiest people on earth. It would, moreover, have given us credit for a grand success in colonial administration. The production of the island would have multiplied tenfold, and free trade with the United States would have developed the island's commerce without limit. The chief products of the tropics are in quick demand here, and no other tropical region except the Hawaiian Islands has free entry into this greatest market in the world.

At least ten million dollars was ready to go into railroad building, and as much more each into sugar,
coffee, tobacco, and fruit growing. It is safe to say
that fifty millions in cash would have gone into the
island on these lines by this time; nearly three times
that amount has been invested in Cuba, where there is
no prospect of free trade with the United States, and
no such supply of cheap labor as in Porto Rico; nor is
there any other superior inducement for capital or
enterprise.

Thus far, according to General Stone, legislation had attempted no interference with the commercial development of the island; but as

soon as the investment schemes became known abroad there arose in Congress a fear that the land would be monopolized by wealthy corporations and that business opportunities generally would be seized by Americans, to the exclusion of the natives. This fear, which General Stone declares was never shared by the Porto Ricans themselves, led to the adoption by both branches of Congress of a resolution embodying a complete code of franchise regulations and of restrictions upon corporate investment in the island .-"such a code," General Stone asserts, "as never could have been imposed on any State or Territory in the Union." The chief provisions of this code are summarized as follows:

1. No corporation can buy and sell real estate there.

2. While it is necessary to have at least five thousand acres of cane lands for a profitable sugar mill, and many of those in Cuba and Hawaii have twenty thousand acres, no corporation in Porto Rico can "own or control over five hundred acres of land" for any agricultural purpose whatever.

3. No corporation of any kind can own any more

land than it uses in its business.

4. "No member of any corporation engaged in agriculture shall be in anywise interested in any other corporation engaged in agriculture,"—that is, a man who has a share of stock in a coffee company cannot buy a share in a sugar company without breaking a federal law!

THE EFFECTS OF THESE RESTRICTIONS.

The results of this legislation are described by General Stone as anything but beneficial to the industrial interests of the island.

A few months' experience showed that these "bars" were too high, and it is no wonder that scores of incipient companies, forming for the legitimate development of Porto Rican agriculture, died a swift death when their counsel came to look up the law.

In consequence of this legislation, not a mile of new railroad has been built on the island, excepting a short link previously begun by the French company to connect up their belt line. The council has repeatedly granted the best franchises the law permits; extensive surveys have been made throughout the island by various projectors and very satisfactory routes discovered, but the restrictions imposed have always made it impossible to secure capital for construction.

In addition to these drawbacks, the council is obliged by the amendment to put into every franchise it grants a provision that the same shall be subject to "amendment, alteration, and repeal," that it shall enable the taking of the property by the public authorities, and the effective regulation of all charges. With these powers in the hands of a local, foreign, and possibly hostile legislative body, the capitalist naturally hesitates to invest.

Sugar-making in Porto Rico is extremely profitable as compared with that in Cuba, which pays higher for labor and is subject to about twenty-five dollars per ton duty in the United States. It would have been natural that a dozen or twenty great sugar centrales should be running in Porto Rico by this time, and

probably that number of sites have been selected by American, French, English, and German capitalists; but only one company has been willing to defy the law of the United States and organize openly for the purpose; another party operates lamely as a syndicate, not being able lawfully to incorporate. The island should produce a half-million tons of sugar annually, but only reaches about one hundred thousand, or much less than in its palmiest Spanish days.

The same conditions obtain in all other lines of business, and the commerce of the island is actually much less under American than under Spanish rule, though, of course, that with America has increased

with free trade there.

For coffee, which was the chief product and export of the island, the Spanish market was almost lost by the interposition there of a heavy duty; and no market has been found in the United States. Fruit-growing requires a large capital and years of waiting. Tobacco cultivation and manufacture need abundant means and great skill to rival the well-established industry in Cuba. Winter vegetables would be extremely profitable with quick transit to the States, but transit waits on production, and production on transit, and both on capital and enterprise.

Is it strange, then, that the rich soil of the island is growing jungle, and the hearts of the people filled with

discontent?

# JAPAN'S TASK AFTER THE WAR.

READERS of that excellent exposition of Japan," will remember the name of the author, Dr. Inazo Nitobe, now a professor in the Imperial University of Kioto. Writing in a recent issue of the Eigo-Shinshi (the Student), of Tokio, this eminent scholar discusses the post-bellum work which Japan must enter upon following the treaty just made at Portsmouth. "When we think of the mighty task which remains for us to do after the war," says this writer, "the deafening sound of banzai dies in the distance and the glaring torches pale away." This mighty task before Japan, Dr. Nitobe classifies into the following seven categories:

1. The care which must be taken of the bereaved families of soldiers. It is not enough to contribute money for their support. A gift without the giver is vain. There is propriety to observe in giving alms to a beggar. "The help we extend to the families of the soldiers is not simple charity,—it should be in large part an offering of thanksgiving as well as a sacrifice to the dead." The government itself has a gigantic task in the distribution of awards and pensions, and the people, without authoritative organs, will find it no easy matter to care for the deserving.

2. The settlement of Korea must have due attention. "A poor effeminate people, with no political instinct, with no economic 'gumption,' with no intellectual ambition, is become our burden." Something must be done to resurrect a dead nation. Statesmen alone cannot do it. Teachers and agriculturists, preachers and engineers, can work more wonders than diplomats

and generals.

3. The money we borrowed must be returned with interest. We need, besides, money for new works of various kinds. Foreign loans may prove more fatal to the independence of a nation than an invading army. No debt of ours can be paid without calling upon the products of our own soil, be they mineral wealth or manufactured articles. "The development of our physical resources is a question of national life or death." New mines must be discovered, or old ones better utilized; foundries must be established to work iron, copper, steel, for home use; factories must be

started to weave silk, cotton, wool, for foreign export; the soil must be more deeply plowed and virgin land opened; fair mountain-slopes must be planted with more trees and grassy plains turned into pastures for more cattle.

4. "As our industries advance, so must our trade with the rest of the world augment. As we shall have more to sell, so must we order more things from abroad. As our foreign trade grows, so must we increase our merchant marine. We must have more ships, larger, swifter, and better than we used to have. As navigation of our coasts and rivers improves, our land communications must keep pace with it. We cannot be moving at a half or a third of the rate of American velocity."

5. "Our political relations with foreign countries will become closer in every way. Russia, which has been in the habit of despising us, has now learned to do otherwise. Germany and France, which never took us seriously, will cease to look upon us as a joke. England and America, which have patronized us as a child-nation, will regard us as an adult people. The whole of Asia, which has regarded us with suspicion and condemned us as traitors to Asiatic tradition, will

follow us as their guide."

6. The closer touch with Europe and America, through diplomacy or commerce, necessitates better acquaintance with the languages of the West, and especially with English. "With some pride we watch the progress of our mother tongue in Korea; but we must not thereby permit ourselves to be deceived into thinking that it will be universally used. Pride and self-sufficiency should not blind us to the utilitarian (not to speak of the moral) value of the English language, for the peoples who use it will be the best customers for our wares."

7. The more intimate our communication with the West, the freer must be the interchange of our ideas. We must know the West better, and we must be better known. There is still a wretched misunderstanding between the East and the West. A thick barrier stands between the two, which unprejudiced study of each other alone can penetrate. It is not enough that we understand English sufficiently to transact business at the counter; we must be able to read and enjoy Shakespeare and Milton, Scott and Dickens, Darwin and Carlyle. Nor is reading knowledge alone enough. We must learn to write, and to write well. We must be

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our own interpreters, since we cannot look for a Lafcadio Hearn to interpret our feelings, nor can one Okakura do all that is needed as a revealer.

Thus summarizing his opinion, Dr. Nitobe goes on to say that greatness won by war is

never enduring; that a nation's happiness comes only by peace. At the same time, he does not forget that peace is not in itself an absolute blessing; that it is rather a condition of social and moral well-being.

### "ROOSEVELT AS RUSSIA'S HELPER."

In the chorus of newspaper comment on President Roosevelt's part in the peace-making between Russia and Japan there is one strong note of dissent from the praise. The Vor Tid, the Norwegian magazine, published in Minneapolis, believes that the intervention of the American President has been untimely and unfortunate. Says the Vor Tid:

Everything conducive to the maintenance and prolongation of the present form of government in Russia serves the cause of tyranny, brutality, and darkness, and the tallow candle which our President has lighted by a peace compromise which helps Russia to continue its present tyranny, which would be a curse to any people, is a poor compensation for the sunlight which would have dawned over the millions on the plains of Russia by the complete overthrow and destruction of the present Russian government. Russia and Japan should have been left alone to fight it out. Judgment was passing over Russia and its tyrants, and the busy hand of our President should not have attempted to stay that judgment. It is, however, only postponed. It must, of course, be very gratifying and flattering to our President, if he has any vanity in that direction, to be praised and admired by the great powers of the world; but here is a question of something infinitely greater than the world's admiration for Roosevelt.

The sacred cause of liberty and justice and human progress demands that what we now understand by "Russia" must not only be weakened, but that it must be destroyed, continues the editor of this review.

Here is an immense people sunk in dense ignorance, robbed and ravaged, and the robbers are its own princes and government. There it lies, beaten, torn, and bleeding, bound and gagged, and may not even cry out in its pains and terror. The vampire is spreading her hellish wings further and further. There lies Poland in its own blood; there lies Finland like a raped virgin turning her shame-covered, tear-stained face toward the people of Europe, and wherever the vampire spreads her black wings all flowers fade, the smile dies, the song is silenced the lights go out, the birds flee, and night is there with its terrors.

Now when the hand of righteousness and justice was raised to strike the bloody tyrants "it is not becoming for Roosevelt or any other man to interpose his hand."

Russia as it is now should be destroyed, its idolatrous church overturned, its government swept from the

earth, and its closed doors and prison-barred windows torn open to let the light of heaven pour in over a people that so long has sat in darkness and in the valley of the shadow of death. We admire President Roosevelt, but the time will come when he himself will see that this last activity of his was a mistake, and that he should have left Russia and Japan alone. He has helped Russia,—helped her to continue her tyranny and remain a world-power; helped her to retain a hold by the Pacific, where from now on she will prepare for a death-struggle with Japan. The peace by Roosevelt is only an armistice. It is a poor plaster on the great sore, and the incense which the world is burning to our President, spreading itself over our whole country with its stupefying fragrance, is a poor remuneration for the misery and suffering which the tyrants of Russia still will bring over their own people, and over all other people which they can reach with their robber's mailed



THE ONE THING LEFT.

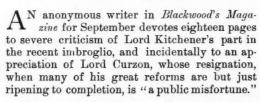
The Czar does not get war laurels. He does not want the palm of peace. Nothing, therefore, remains for him but a beating.—From Neue Glühlichter (Vienna).

### LORD CURZON'S RESIGNATION.



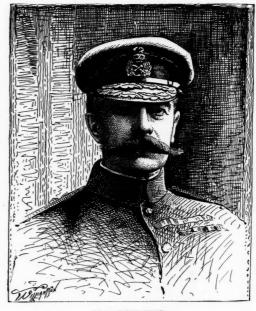
LORD CURZON.

(Who has resigned as viceroy and governor-general of India.)



The issue is whether the governor-general-in-council is to have as colleague a soldier who is competent to give a sound opinion on all military matters, or one who is to be chosen because his opinions on the most important questions will, from lack of experience and standing, carry no weight. On this question Lord Curzon has resigned.

Already the changes ordered by the cabinet have lowered the position of the governor-general-in-council, of which lowering the recent public reply of Lord Curzon to criticisms made on his statements by telegram to the secretary of state for India is but another proof. So far from recent changes putting an end to the present conflict of authorities, Blackwood's writer thinks there will be more friction than ever, "only it will be higher up in the machine of government,"—between the governor-general-in-council and the commander-in-chief, or between the latter functionary and the viceroy. Lord Minto's tact and ability will be tried to the utmost. Lord Kitchener, he says, reluctantly,



LORD KITCHENER.

(Military commander-in-chief of India.)

has shown many signs of petulance, of dislike of criticism and control of any kind, and of an unwillingness to receive the orders of the government through the recognized channel. The government of India's letter he calls "a power-



THE PIRATES' VICTIM.

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(Lord Curzon, the other day the spoiled darling of Unionism, has now to walk the plank.)

From the Morning Leader (London).

ful and temperate answer to the commander-inchief's proposals." Lord Kitchener confuses his position as commander-in-chief with his extraordinary and anomalous position as member of council, whereas the two functions are altogether apart.

### CHOOSING A MINISTRY IN ENGLAND.

"THERE are two supreme political pleasures in life," says Lord Rosebery. "One is ideal, the other real. The ideal is when a man receives the seals of office from the hands of his sovereign; the real, when he hands them back."

Mr. Michael MacDonagh, in Longman's Magazine for September, describes, in a lively paper on "The Making of a Government," what will take place when Mr. Balfour and others enjoy, at no distant date, some "real political pleasure." Many things are more easily made than governments. It is not, apparently, that material lacks; it is rather that it is superabundant. The first question is, What is the chief test of a man's capacity for office? To which Mr. MacDonagh answers, sadly enough, that it is mainly the gift of the gab. He admits that glibness of tongue is entirely unnecessary to a good administrator, but still—

The fact remains that the ready talker with but little practical experience of affairs has a better chance of a portfolio than the man of trained business capacity who is tongue-tied. Perhaps debaters are more useful in an administration than business men. A story is told of Disraeli which certainly points to that conclusion. Once, when forming a government, he offered the board of trade to a man who wanted the local government board, as he was better acquainted with the municipal affairs of the country than its commerce. "It doesn't matter," said Disraeli; "I suppose you know as much about trade as Blank, the first lord of the admiralty, knows about ships."

The evil which might be expected to result from such a method of choosing administrators is, however, largely counteracted by the capable permanent officials in the various departments,—undercats kept to do the mousing.

### ADJUSTING RIVAL CLAIMS.

Mr. MacDonagh draws a harrowing picture of the task before the next prime minister. His choice must be made between any number of young pushfuls on the back benches, watching for their chances like cats for mice, many of them brilliant enough to talk on any subject and to have ambitions (which cannot be ridiculed) toward secretary of stateships; a number of other young pushfuls, less brilliant and less glibtongued, but also ever on the watch for their chance, and each striving to master the details of some special office, with a view to, first, an



TIME'S UP!

C.-B.: "Now, then, you in there, sir! Aren't you coming out?—your time's up."

A.-B.: "Quite so, but I thought I'd just have another dip first!"—From Punch (London).

under-secretaryship, and ultimately to a seat in the cabinet; and, finally, and much most difficult of all, there are the "placid, steady-going veterans on the front opposition bench, who have already won their spurs. . . . Their interest in public affairs has not in the least abated, and they are still eager to return to office." Nevertheless, Mr. MacDonagh hints, their capacity for office may have seriously diminished.

Moreover, the prime minister is not entirely unfettered in his choice. He cannot merely sit and select the men who seem to him all-round the most suitable.

His task it is to satisfy as far as possible claims for office as conflicting as they are urgent, and at the same time to give to his administration that weight and authority which is necessary to win the confidence of the country. Gladstone, who formed no fewer than four

administrations,—an almost unprecedented record in constitutional history,—used to draw up on slips of paper a list of the various offices, placing opposite each, as alternatives, the names of three or four more or less eligible men, and then, by a process of sifting, arriving at the definite list.

For every post there are at least three or four applicants, each of whom thinks himself the man, and we can well believe that it is no easy task for a prime minister to adjust all these rival claims. Besides, he is bombarded by letters from members of Parliament and leading party men all over the country urging the appointment of this or that man to this or that post, or his inclusion in the cabinet.

MAINTAINING THE BALANCE BETWEEN THE TWO HOUSES.

Moreover, somehow or other the offices of the administration must be equitably distributed between the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The chancellor of the exchequer must be in the representative chamber, as the hereditary legislators have no control over taxation. The holders of all the other prominent offices may be in one house or the other, as the prime minister thinks most convenient. But it has now become a rule, from which probably there will never be a departure, of placing the home secretary,the minister whose department comes most closely into touch with the ordinary life of the citizen,-in the House of Commons, and giving the foreign secretary, -the minister whose duties are most delicate and responsible,-the greater parliamentary freedom and leisure of the House of Lords. The other secretaries of state may be in either the House of Lords or the House of Commons; but in whatever chamber the secretary may be, the under-secretary of the same department must be in the other. There are, moreover, two offices

in the government for which Roman Catholics are ineligible,—the lord chancellorship of England and the lord lieutenancy of Ireland.

The only prime minister, we are told, who approached the task of making a government with a sense of gayety and irresponsibility was Lord Palmerston. This probably accounts for his "engaging weakness of putting all his square men in round holes," but when his thus constructed ministry had to be reconstructed he only found it a "delightful comedy of errors."

### CERTAIN PRINCIPLES OF SELECTION.

Gladstone and Sir Robert Peel both held the opinion that it was inadvisable to put a man into the cabinet without previous official training. Gladstone, moreover, once he had invited a man to office, held on to him as long as possible. "The next most serious thing to admitting a man into the cabinet,' said he, mentioning one of the principles which guided him in the making of a government, 'is to leave a man out who has once been in.'"

Yet even Gladstone sometimes had to exclude a former colleague on the ground of age. Age, however, is rather a vague term. It does not mean that a man of over a certain age is shelved; but if a man is old, even middle-aged, and also an extinct political volcano, then he must go to the wall. This is the inexorable law of politics.

Gladstone was eighty-four in 1893, but he was still inevitable as prime minister. If the strong young man of achievement, and still greater promise, cannot be set aside, neither can the old man who, having built up a commanding reputation, takes care that it does not decline.

# ENGLAND'S CONSTITUTIONAL DEADLOCK.

BRITISH politics are just now in a confused condition. In the Contemporary Review (London) for September, Prof. A. V. Dicey discusses what he calls "the paralysis of the constitution." He says the ministry, the opposition, and the nation stand at the present moment all alike, in a false position. Ministers hold office when they have ceased to command the confidence of the country. The fiscal controversy has made the nation distrustful. The Liberals hold a position at least as ambiguous. They are as little pronounced on home rule as the government on tariff reform. Neither of the great parties commands the confidence of the people. The mass of the nation is represented by neither.

A cabinet which is called upon to resign because it does not represent the free trade principles of the nation

may reasonably enough deny the moral obligation to make way for another cabinet which does not represent the unionism of the nation.

Yet, the learned professor says, not the government alone, but "every party and every member of every party dreads the next general election, and wishes to conciliate possible opponents. Conscious weakness produces, as always, unconscious cowardice."

Of this he finds two curious illustrations.

How many of our legislators seriously believe in the wisdom or the possibility of establishing a system of old age pensions? Yet where are the men who have ventured to say openly that the attempt to provide oldage pensions must end in failure, and, before its failure is patent, may lead to ruinous consequences?

What, above all, is the meaning of hasty tampering with the fundamental principles of the poor law?

What, in short, explains the support given to the unemployed workmen's bill?

The only cure Professor Dicey can find for the situation is the creation of a majority which acquiesces in the will of the country, a Unionist party that has renounced tariff reform, a Liberal party renouncing the alliance with Separatists, or even the conversion of the nation either to protection or to home rule. The two last possibilities Professor Dicey deprecates as warmly as he desires the two first. The whole article reveals with almost tragic pathos the perplexity and suffering which Mr. Chamberlain's plunge has caused earnest and conservative minds.

### ENGLAND'S WASTEFUL POOR-LAW SYSTEM.

RECENTLY the British prime minister has promised a royal commission to inquire into the working of the present poor law. Humanity has long condemned it as barbarous. But many humane people have been prejudiced against reform by the superstition that it was less costly than any system that would take its place. Miss Edith Sellers, an expert on provision for the aged and the poor in all lands, renders timely service by her article in the Nineteenth Century (London) for September, "How Poor Law Guardians Spend Their Money." It is a complete explosion of the vaunted economy practiced by guardians. It is an indictment of mingled wastefulness and stupidity which will bring conviction even to the slow-working brain of John Bull.

Miss Sellers selects for her analysis a comparatively small district with a population of 52,000, made up of three little towns and several villages, all alike being fairly well-to-do. Even the farm laborer has there 21s. (\$5.25) a week. Nevertheless, in a single year the guardians of that union spent on poor relief £19,796, almost \$100,000. It seemed a large sum for so small a population, and Miss Sellers set to work to find out how the guardians had managed to spend so much. She found the financial statement shed little light on the question. She had to supplement it with chance returns and reports reserved as a rule for the guardians alone. The average number supported wholly or in part by the guardians that year was 936; 174 in the workhouse, 27 in the casual wards, 48 in the workhouse school, 85 boarded out in lunatic asylums or other institutions; 28 were non-resident cases, while 458 were out-relief cases with 115 children dependent on them. More than half of all the paupers were in receipt of outdoor relief. The total spent on out-relief was £2,564. Divided among the recipients, this sum worked out at an average per head of 1s. 81d. (about 42 cents) a week. This out-relief certainly seemed neither extravagant nor humane. Taking in other items, Miss Sellers finds that of the £19,796 spent in the year, £6.320 had gone to the relief of 573

out-paupers, 28 non-resident paupers, and 86 afflicted persons, together with the sick relief of the whole district,—*i.e.*, to 687 out of the total of 936 persons relieved.

### \$290 A YEAR ON EACH INMATE!

So Miss Sellers arrives at the staggering conclusion:

They must, therefore, have spent no less a sum than £13,476 on defraying the cost of administration and providing for 174 workhouse inmates, 48 workhouse children, and 27 vagrants, practically on boarding and lodging 222 persons, and giving a night's shelter, together with a snack meal or two, to 27 more. Thus, had they made a clean sweep of the whole relief paraphernalia, — an impossible feat, of course, — and themselves dealt out to their protégés the money they spent, they would have been able to present to each of their vagrants a shilling every night, and to each of their workhouse inmates and school children £58 every year. On £58 a year many a curate, as many a clerk, not only lives himself, but supports a wife and family.

The reader exclaims, How could the money be spent?

### HOUSED AT \$70 A HEAD.

Well, Miss Sellers shows that each inmate cost 4s. a week in food and 6d in clothes, an allowance rather stingy than generous. Lighting, heating, and washing cost, per inmate, 2s.  $5\frac{1}{2}d$ . a week. The coal bill for the laundry alone was 411 tons, burned to heat the water wherewith to wash the paupers' bits of things, together, of course, with their caretakers' collars and cuffs. Housing is a heavy item:

The guardians had spent £3,660 that year on the up-keeping of the workhouse, the casual wards, and the school. . . . And at the end of it all, so far as non-official eyes could see, not a building they had was one whit better on the last day of the year than on the first. Three thousand six hundred and sixty pounds a year for the housing of 249 persons is, roughly, £14 14s. per head. Thus, each of the guardians' protégés, workhouse immates, school children, and casuals, all reckoned together, had cost their fellows for housing alone £14 14s.,—just about as much as the average workingman in that district pays for the housing of himself, his wife, and family.

ONE OFFICIAL TO EVERY NINE INMATES.

But the cost of surveillance strikes Miss Sellers as most extravagant. In the workhouse there are eighteen regularly appointed officials to take care of 174 inmates, receiving £889 a year, with rations and fees in addition amounting to £600 more. There are several officials who give only part of their time,-doctor, chaplain, organist, dentist, stocktaker, lawyer with £200 a year, clerk with £275. Miss Sellers reckons that all these official salaries, fees, etc., would reach about £2,250, and that the full cost of the maintenance of every man and woman in the workhouse is about £50 (\$250) a year, a sum, she adds, "on which middle-class widows manage sometimes to bring up half a dozen children respectably." The twenty-seven vagrants cost the ratepayers £693, though the relief they actually received cost only £135. The children in the workhouse schools numbered forty-eight, cost 3s. 5d. a week each for food, 1s. 23d. each for clothes, and £2 13s. 9d. for school-No fewer than seven officials are employed for the whole of their time to look after these forty-eight children, their salaries and rations amounting to £775. Surveillance works out at more than £16 per child! Consequently, each workhouse child had cost the ratepayers £50 10s. (\$252.50),—more than twice as much as, on an average, the ratepayers' sons and daughters had each cost them. What more crushing proof of extravagance could be adduced? Miss Sellers puts her figures together in this tabular form:

458 out-relief casesat	£5	08.	12d.	per case,	£2,564
28 non-resident cases "	4	18	6	**	138
86 persons in asylums, etc "	34	11	7	per head,	2,974
174 workhouse inmates "	43	7	5	**	7,546
27 vagrants "		14	0	**	694
48 children"			0	66	2,424
And on medical relief					644
Total					£16.984

Of the remaining £2,800, £1,300 went on miscellaneous expenses and £1,496 went to officials.

HOW A BUSINESS MAN WOULD DO IT.

Here, veritably, says Miss Sellers, is woeful waste.

Does any one suppose that this sum, or half this sum, would be spent if the control of the administration, instead of being vested in a committee of irresponsible amateurs, was vested in a practical business man who had to pay all salaries out of his own income? How such a man would scoff were it suggested to him that he should give a lawyer a retaining fee of £200 on the off-chance of a little legal advice being required. How he would scoff, too, were he told that he must spend £1,873 a year on caretakers for 174 workhouse inmates. with a few casuals thrown in; and £797 more on caretakers for 48 school children. He would make short work, I have never a doubt, of those eighteen officials who hang about the workhouse all day; would make short work, too, of the seven other officials who hang about the school. The work that is done now he would manage to have done, and better than it is done now, I am inclined to think, with half the number of officials and at less than half the cost. For the real work of the union, it must be remembered, is done, for the most part, not by the officials, but by the inmates themselves, with a helping hand from the casuals.

### THE NATION'S EXPENDITURES.

The instance Miss Sellers has cited is, she says, a fairly typical instance.

Thus, we may take it for granted that as they spend their money other guardians spend theirs; we may take it for granted, in fact, that as a good half of the £19,796 spent on the relief of the poor in this one district was just swattered away, not far short of half the £12,848,323 spent on the relief of the poor of the whole country was swattered away also. And although the woeful waste of a few thousands may concern only the parish, the woeful waste of millions concerns the whole nation. Surely the time has come for mending, if not for ending, our present amateurish system of poor-relief.

I once asked a citizen of Copenhagen why his town had made a clean sweep of poor-law guardians and had installed trained officials in their place. "The amateur administrator is too costly a luxury for so small a country as ours," he replied, promptly. "It suits us better to pay a man to do our work well than to have it done gratis and badly."

# SOME RESULTS OF THE EIGHT-HOUR LABOR DAY IN EUROPE.

SOME startling facts on the subject of the eight-hour labor day are contributed to the Hilfe (Berlin), proving that neither quantity nor quality of work has suffered from the reduction of time. In 1894, the working time of about forty-three thousand men employed in English government factories was reduced to forty-eight hours a week. The war department contributed almost twenty thousand men especially employed at Woolwich. The shortened time ag-

gregated five and three-quarter hours weekly. After more then ten years' experience, an official report is now at hand:

When the forty-eight-hour week was commenced the war department figured that the time necessary for stopping and starting machinery at breakfast would be saved, because under the new regulation work would begin after breakfast. Saving of light and fuel was also expected. It was furthermore supposed that the later start of work would induce more

regularity and a greater capacity for work on account of improved bodily condition. The department did not, therefore, foresee an increased manufacturing cost; this confidence has now been fully realized. The production has not diminished, and the wages of the pieceworkers, on the other hand, have not suffered notable reduction in spite of the fact that the prices remained the same. Workmen employed at time wages received an increase to equal the earnings of the tenhour day. It was not necessary to raise the number of men working on time. Similar results were obtained in the English marine administration.

Detailed studies of this subject are also published in the Swedish illustrated Social Tidskrift (Stockholm). The new French mines legislation, in force on January 2, 1906, prescribes the nine-hour limit for laborers working underground. The time is figured from the descent of the last man into the shaft until the arrival of the first one at the surface. From January 2, 1908, the time will be eight and one-half hours, and two years later (1910), eight hours. Exceptions to this rule will be permitted only after public investigation as to its necessity.

The Swedish review also refers to the legisla-

tion submitted to the American Congress, ac. cording to which entrepreneurs contracting for the Government should not be allowed to employ workmen for more than eight hours a day. Tests were made, upon the declaration of twenty-four manufacturers that the eight-hour day would hurt the economy and raise the cost of production. The two great sister ships, the Louisiana and the Connecticut, were chosen for the experiment. The former should be built on a private wharf at ten hours a day, the latter on the dockyard of the Government at the eighthour limit. After 528 days, 54.5 per cent. of the hull of the Louisiana work was accomplished. while the Connecticut showed 53.59 per cent. after 570 days. The material wrought in the Louisiana shops weighed 12,216,154 pounds, and the aggregate working time amounted to 2,413,888 hours. The corresponding figures for the Connecticut work were 11,391,040 and 1,808,-240. During the ten-hour day, 50,608 pounds were consequently wrought in one day, and almost just as much, or 50,396 pounds, under the eight-hour limit.

### FIVE YEARS OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN HOLLAND.

NDUSTRIAL and economic conditions in Holland are so complicated and so full of lessons for the rest of the world that American readers will find a good deal to interest them in the following facts and figures which we gather from the Dutch monthly review, De Economist. They apply to the years 1901 to 1904, inclusive. As explanatory of certain statements herein made, it should be mentioned that within the last few years the government has established certain chambers of labor for the protection of both employers and employed, before which questions at issue between any contending parties in the labor field can be brought for settlement or arbitration. A central bureau of statistics has also been established for the purpose of collecting and recording all important data in regard to the labor question.

The central bureau of statistics has recently published the leading facts concerning the strikes and lockouts that have occurred in The Netherlands during the past year, 1904. From these statistics, from which we borrow some leading figures, it appears that in the past year there were comparatively few labor contests, and those insignificant, the great struggles in the diamond industry and in the glass factories excepted. Nothing else could have been expected, indeed, after the deplorable experience of 1903. In the first place, we may give the

number of strikes that took place during the four years covered by The Netherlands strike statistics, arranged according to occupations, as shown by the following table:

	1901	1902	1903	1904
Building trades	29	35	45	23
Diamond industry	5	8	7	
Workers in wood	3	3	7	7
Machinery and metal workers	29 5 3 9 5 7	5	7	
Stone workers	5	10	7	3
Textile and clothing industry	7	7	15	8
Transportation,	10	7	15	6
Peat workers	16	6	1	1
Provisions and groceries	13	3	18	19
Other occupations	7	12	16	11
Total	118	130	144	85

As in other years, the building trades were most seriously affected by strikes even in 1904. Most of the strikes take place in the leading centers of population, particularly in Amsterdam, as is shown by the following figures:

Total number	of strikes.	Number of these in eight towns of over 50,000 inhabitants.	Number in Amsterdam.		
1901	118	39	22		
	130	67	41		
	144	87	53		
	85	31	13		

The entire number of strikers in 1904, so far as known, did not amount to more than 4,432, as against 33,487 in 1903 and 12,652 in 1902. The total number of working days lost by the strikers, now tabulated in the statistics for the first time, amounted to 86,820, while, in addition, those workmen whose labor was stopped in consequence of the strikes lost 61,183 working days. As is justly observed by the compiler of these statistics, the number given of working days lost does not give sufficient data to calculate the loss in wages occasioned by the For, omitting the probable disbursements to the strikers of the funds of their various organizations, which, as coming ultimately out of the pockets of the strikers, cannot be counted as a diminution of the amount of loss sustained in wages, in the strikes gained by the employees wages are not seldom paid even for the days when the strike is on, in which case there is financial loss, of course, to the employers, and, in a wider sense, material loss to society at large.

The great majority of the demands made by the workmen was for an advance in wages, while next in importance to this was made the demand for the rein-

statement of discharged employees.

Of 83 strikes in 1904 the results became fully known. Of these, 22 were won by the workmen, 34 were lost, 25 were adjusted, and 2 remained undecided. Or, reckoned by percentages, 26.51 per cent. were won, 40.96 per cent. were lost, 30.12 per cent. were settled, and 2.14 per cent.

were left undecided. Of the 83 strikes in 1904, therefore, 56.63 per cent. were wholly or partly successful, against 54.29 per cent., 61.98 per cent., and 60.87 per cent., respectively, in the three immediately preceding years. In the trades represented by a chamber of labor 35 strikes took place, but in only six of these cases (considerably less than 1903) was any action of the chamber called for in settlement of the dispute, and of these six there were four in which the action of the chamber was crowned with success.

The lockouts during the past year were more numerous than in the preceding three years, there being 17 in 1904, as against 14 in 1903 and 1902 and 7 in 1901. In the lockouts of 1904, so far as known, 6,754 workmen were concerned. The number of working days lost by the locked-out men is reckoned at 490,046, and by those who in consequence of the dispute were compelled to stop work the number of days lost was reckoned at 19,828. Of these two figures, 484,571 and 19,610 days, respectively, are to be attributed to the great lockout in the diamond works. Nine of these lockouts were won by the employers, two were lost by them, while six cases were compromised. In seven cases the lockout occurred in trades represented by a chamber of labor, and in two of these cases the particular chamber interested was called upon to settle the questions at issue, in both with good success. Twice, also, a chamber became involved in a case not within its jurisdiction, only once, however, with success.

### IS SCOTLAND DECADENT?

SCOTCHMAN who has revisited his fatherland after many years of absence, and who finds life, culture, and industry in a very bad way, contributes to the National Review an article under the above title, which he signs by the nom de plume of "Malagrowther." Scotland, he says,-that is, the "energetic Scotland that counts and keeps itself in evidence,"-lives in the past. "It is emphatically the country of anniversaries and centenaries." It busies itself with celebrating anniversaries of Knox, Burns, Scott, Watt, and Stevenson. The declaration that Scotland lives in its past, however, while fundamentally sound, continues this writer, requires a slight addition. "Scotland lives on its great past, plus Mr. Andrew Carnegie.'

When the merchant in the city or the grocer in the small town opens his daily paper of a morning, his first object, after the necessary glance at the stock markets, is to ascertain whether Mr. Carnegie has given a few thousands for an organ or a library, or a few millions for education. And he does this in the same spirit of feudalism which made Wamba give his first thought

when the sun rose to the intentions of Cedric, even although he not only believed, but positively knew, that he was a better man than his master. Scotland, in so far as it can be regarded as an independent political entity, and not as the "knuckle-end of England," is not an aristocracy or a democracy, although it is generally so styled by the Scottish members who adequately represent its grocerdom, but not its brains, but a carefully graded plutocracy. When a man is alive he is judged by his income, as that is either positively known, as in the case of clergymen, professors, and state or municipal officials, or can be inferred from "the style he keeps up," or his contributions to public charities or popular entertainments. When he dies he is judged by the death duties that his executors have to pay.

Generations of living up to the letter of the law in the matter of church and religious life, to the neglect of the spirit, continues this writer, has made the Scotch a nation "permeated with churchianity rather than Christianity." Moreover, the development of the factory system has "plebified" Scotch society. There is no literary society in Scotland, this writer continues, nor can there be, for there are no men of letters.

There are still publishers and publishers' hacks, including university professors and lecturers who compile dictionaries and school books for "the million." But there is no light or leading in them; and they have obviously no heart in their work, which is paid at a rate that a junior commercial traveler for a prosperous spirit business would despise. Formerly, judges of the Supreme Court, and professors in the universities, like Lord Neaves and John Stuart Blackie, used to dabble in convivial verse and breezy prose. The venerable Professor Masson still lives to remind a younger generation of the time when John Wilson and William Edmonstoune Aytoun found in Scotland an audience large enough to appreciate their vigorous onslaughts on the extravagances of the Lake and "spasmodic" schools of poetry.

Modern journalism has taken the place of literature in Scotland, we are told, further, and seems to have destroyed the taste for it.

The last effort to revive literature in Scotland was made by an Englishman, the late W. E. Henley, and the Scots Observer which he created. But it ended in brilliant failure, and it is morally certain that nothing of the kind will ever be tried again. Scotsmen have, of course, distinguished themselves in literature even during the past half-century. But, like Stevenson, who, however, was not so much a "typical Scot" as a "starry stranger," and Mr. Barrie, they leave their country for their own good and the delectation of London. As a simple matter of fact, there are residing in Scotland at the present moment but two Scots men of letters, in the true sense-Mr. Neil Munro, the author of "The Lost Pibroch," and Mr. J. H. Millar, whose "Literary History of Scotland" shows that his country still possesses one critic who can write English that is free from solecisms, and who has the courage to say what he thinks of the snivel and drivel of the Kailyard. In poetry, Scotland is nowhere. An industrious bookseller in the far north some time ago published in a portentous series of volumes the works of "living Scottish poets," with their portraits, which were understood to be "lifelike." This was the only sign of life in the work.

Scotchmen, says this writer, in conclusion, are never weary of telling us that their country never contained so much wealth as it does now. That is probably true.

But it is no less true that never was Scotland's wealth so unequally distributed, or so sterilized in the distribution. The gulf between rich and poor is wider than ever it was, because the classes and the masses have now no meeting-ground or community of views, not even religion. Both the old gayety and the old earnestness of Scotland have disappeared. Whether they will reappear after a process of social transformation remains to be seen. At present, Scotland is the dreary paradise of bourgeois prosperity and sectarianism, a country of 15 sects, 3,000 churches, 300 bowling greens, 250 golf courses—and no poet.

### A Reply by a Patriotic Scotsman.

The following number of the National contains a reply to "Malagrowther" by Archibald

Fleming, who contends that Scotland needs no advocate.

The decadent land which has still sufficient marrow in her to provide, for the empire's ampler stage, a present and a prospective prime minister, not to speak of a premier-emeritus still in the heyday of his powers; archbishops for Canterbury and York; a viceroy for India; and a host of leaders in literature, politics, the professions, and commerce,—that land may well dispense with any special journalistic advocacy, having in contemporary history an answer so patent and so potent ready-made.

It is not "Malagrowther's" opinion, however, but his facts, which Mr. Fleming challenges. Scotland does not worship Andrew Carnegie, says this writer,—does not hang on his words.

He is accepted, tolerated-despoiled and plundered, if you choose to say so; but not much fancied; and when, for most of the year, he is beyond the seas, there is probably no absent Scot of eminence who is more unwept, unhonored, or unsung. But he has not wrought the wholesale national havoc of "Malagrowther's "dream. His money has perhaps enticed some country boys to college who had been better at the plow; it has tempted others to declare that they cannot pay their fees when they could pay quite well; by means of it he has seduced some scores, if not hundreds, of dissenting churches-and, I regret to say, a bunch of parish churches as well-into the construction of organs, all richly dight with gold, at least three times too vast for the buildings in which they are placed; and he has sedulously fostered the delusion that to multiply facilities for the consumption of second-rate fiction is to further the great cause of education. But to say that Carnegieism has demoralized Scotland or has furnished us with a new religion is to talk extravagantly. And it has gratefully to be remembered that the immense sums which Mr. Carnegre has devoted to the endowment of research in the Scottish universities have been already productive of far-reaching good.

Scotland, says Mr. Fleming, is not given up to Mammon-worship, nor is she as irreligious as "Malagrowther" would have us believe. While the historic sin of the Scottish Episcopal Church has been that of "consistent, tactical, maladroitness," yet it is a dignified, earnest body, which "honestly believes itself to be a missionary church in a churchless land." For the United Free Church of Scotland Mr. Fleming has great admiration and respect. It is, he declares, essentially one.

Englishmen in Parliament have seen, to their amazement, that Scotsmen, where their church is concerned (and, when all is said and done, it is, in all its fragments, their one historic church), will sink their politics and act in concord. The manner of its realizing may not be clear as yet. But the one salient vision of the Scottish imagination of to-day is that of their reunited historic church, rising from the smoke of recent battle to reinvigorated life,—more strong, more typically national, and not nominally, but essentially, "free."

# THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION,—A SURVEY.

ONE of the most successful American merchants, Mr. John Wanamaker, is said to have recently remarked: "If I had my life to live over again, I'd give twice as much to the Young Men's Christian Association. It is an investment that never disappoints." Treating the institution from the standpoint of an investment for young men, Mr. Herbert N. Casson contributes to Munsey's Magazine a paper which, while it is a study of the organization, is also a tribute to its venerable founder, Sir George Williams, now eighty-five years of age.

The movement began sixty-one years ago, on Blackfriars Bridge, in London. Two young men, George Williams and Edward Beaumont, both clerks on small salaries, were crossing the bridge on their way home, one evening, when Williams said:

"Teddy, are you willing to make a sacrifice for your

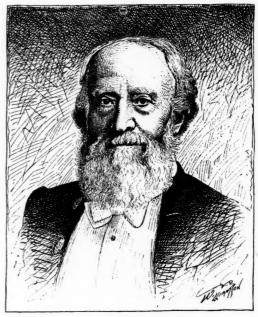
religion?"

"Yes, George," replied Teddy; "if you lead, I'll follow."

Williams then proposed that they should call their fellow-clerks together and form a society to help one another lead better lives. Teddy agreed. They made known their plan, and, as they expected, were jeered at and pelted with nicknames. They persevered, and won over ten of the enemy. Their employer took notice of their efforts, and lent them a little room in the garret over the store. Here, on June 6, 1844, the twelve young clerks organized the first Young Men's Christian Association.

The society grew, and in seven years there were branches in Scotland, Ireland, Canada, and the United States. The first American Young Men's Christian Association was organized in Boston, in 1851. A generation ago, this organization was commonly regarded by the outside world, as Mr. Casson points out, as a society whose chief purposes were preaching and praying. "To-day, almost every one knows it better, -knows it as a huge and powerful organization that works for the good of society in a hundred different ways, all of them highly practical." Mr. Casson recites the various activities and beneficences of the organization, and sums up by saying that it has developed into a young men's world, "with almost everything in it that a young man needs from the day he earns his first dollar until he marries and makes a home of his own." As this writer picturesquely puts it, answering the question as to whether it is a real estate corporation, a gymnasium, a university, a church, an hotel, or a recreation club:

You may call it any one of these, and give good reasons. For instance, in the United States alone it owns thirty-one million dollars' worth of land and buildings. Its yearly income is more than four million dollars, half of which is perpetuated in property. It has more



SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS.

than five hundred club-houses, large enough to house the whole population of a city like Pittsburg. Every five days, on an average, it puts up a new building! Surely it is a real estate corporation, and one of the most prosperous in the country. Look at it from another point of view, and you will find it has more than thirty-two thousand students in its schools,-about as many as the eight biggest universities in America can show. Its diplomas are accepted by a hundred colleges. In its libraries are half a million books. Last year it gave away to soldiers and sailors seventy-five tons of books and magazines. Plainly, it should take rank as a university, and a most practical one, for it teaches its students useful trades and finds them employers when they graduate. Its finished product in this line last year numbered fifteen thousand young men. Give this many-sided institution another twist and it becomes the greatest school of physical culture in the world, operating five hundred and fifty-six gymnasiums, with one hundred and thirty-five thousand pupils. It is the foremost promoter of clean sport. When it takes hold of a young man, it hardens his backbone and tightens up his muscles, physically as well as morally. For scientific body-building, its instructors are generally admitted to be the best in their profession. "They are the finest body of specialists in physical training in the world," says no less an authority than Dr. Anderson, of

A fourth twist, and it is transformed into a church for men only. "Why don't men go to church?" is the plaint of many a preacher. In many cases the answer is, "Because they go to the services of the Young Men's Christian Association." Here we find a Bible class of thirty-eight thousand, and an annual attendance at religious meetings of more than three millions. If the men will not come to it, it goes to the men. It holds short dinner-hour meetings for workmen in the quarries of Vermont, in the lumber camps and cotton mills of the South, and in the mines and steel plants of Pennsylvania. Not long ago, in a blaze of missionary enthusiasm, it took forty of its young men and sent them as advance agents into ten foreign countries. Examine this Pooh Bah of institutions still further and you will discover that it gives lodging to several hundred thousands, baths to one million, and meals to two millions, in the ordinary course of its year's work. It owns farms, islands, house-boats, tents, and gypsy wagons. Probably fourteen thousand of its members have been summering this year in its country camps.

In educational matters, the associations have become experiment stations, "making new roads for schools and colleges." The curriculum is extremely practical. The association is dealing with flesh-and-blood young men, who are battling in a world of rough realities. "In every department it is as practical as a load of bricks." "What I like about your work," said President Roosevelt to a convention of secretaries, "is that you mix religion with common sense." Here, for example, is the list of subjects discussed lately by one of the largest bodies:

"The Hot-Headed Man."

"Who Is to Blame for Graft?"

"Does Swearing Help a Fellow's Feelings?"

"Self-Control."

"Is Temptation a Fact or a Fancy?"

"Municipal Ownership."

No matter where a young man goes, concludes Mr. Casson, the Young Men's Christian Association is on his trail.

He will find it among the paper-makers of Maine, the coal miners of Pennsylvania, the quarrymen of Vermont, the cotton-mill workers of the Carolinas, and the gold miners of Alaska. The latest idea in the South is the movable Young Men's Christian Association, which follows the lumber camps. The average secretary is a sleuth. He tracks his prey to its hiding-place. Every week little meetings are held in a flagman's shanty, an engineer's caboose, a coal mine, a battleship, or the

"bull pen," of a street-car barn. Sometimes the Young Men's Christian Association follows the flag; sometimes it goes ahead. It is in Cuba, with President Palma as a charter member; and in Hawaii and the Philippines. About three hundred Americans and matives enter the Manila building every day; and several agents travel through the army camps, scattering books and magazines among the homesick boys. "Pay-day to-morrow. Come over with a talking-machine," is a message often sent by the army chaplains to the Manila Young Men's Christian Association. And so many ayoung man is amused and reasoned with, until his self-respect is stiffened and the danger-line is crossed.

When the Russo-Japanese war began, the American Young Men's Christian Association asked permission to accompany the Japanese army.

"No," said the minister of war. "We need no missionaries."

After several days he changed his mind, and allowed six secretaries and six native helpers to go to the firing line. From the first, these men with the four mystic letters on their caps became popular with the army. Concerts were given every night with talking-machines and music-boxes. "Manhattan Beach" was the favorite tune. Hundreds of letters were written for illiterate soldiers. The great Kuroki presently paid a visit to the Young Men's Christian Association tents, and expressed his approval. Oyama followed suit; and soon the various generals were wiring, "Send more of your men." A check for five thousand dollars was received from the Mikado, and to-day the Young Men's Christian Association is an established Japanese institution, tested under fire and proved to be true-blue.

In Russia, the association has had a foothold since 1897. Its most influential friend has been the Czarina; its head is Prince Peter of Oldenburg, a brother-in-law of the Czar. When the international conference was held in Paris, last May, at the time when the newspapers were telling of Togo and Rozhestvenski, the Japanese delegate, K. Tbuka, and the Russian delegate, Helman Luezan, were sitting side by side on the platform or walking arm-in-arm along the boulevards.

# REVIVALS—ANCIENT AND MODERN.

A PROPOS of the great revival in Wales, Dr. Thomas M. Lindsay, principal of the United Free Church College at Glasgow, and one of the most eminent of church historians, contributes to the Contemporary Review (London) for September an admirable study of revivals. He starts by saying that "from one point of view, the history of the Christian religion is a chronicle of its revivals. The Church of Christ was born in a time of revival, and from revival to revival seems to be the law of its growth." They

are not peculiar to any one division of the Christian Church, or of any one generation, but to all. Institutions and theologies have changed—

But the revival is always the same. Space and Time, so potent over all things human, seem powerless to change it. What it was in Achaia in the first century, or in Italy in the thirteenth, or in the Rhineland in the fourteenth, or in England in the eighteenth, it is in Wales to-day.

Dr. Lindsay begins with Achaia. He says: In St. Paul's first letter to the Christians of Corinth we have the earliest recorded account of the meetings of the Primitive Church for public worship, and they describe scenes common to revival meetings in every age.

### THE REVIVAL UNDER ST. FRANCIS.

Next, he describes the great revival under Francis of Assisi, which swept over Italy in the thirteenth century. There is a vivid picture of the brethren meeting by hundreds in a remote glen, spending days in the rapture of song and prayer and stirring address.

There was no other service; no appointed leaders of the devotions; no one selected to edify the brethren. Men sang, or prayed, or spoke as they were moved by inward impulse to do it, and the sense of spiritual power and presence was felt by all.

The words of St. Paul in his first letter to the Corinthians, the narrative of the Franciscan chronicler, the accounts contained in the newspapers describing the Welsh revival of to-day, might all be used to describe one movement; and yet the scenes are separated by centuries.

### WHAT PREVENTS HYSTERICAL EXCESS.

There is yet a deeper unity. We hear of crowded meetings, of audiences "strung to the highest pitch of spiritual excitement," and yet calm, quiet, and orderly. Always there is untrammeled liberty of worship.

If one asks why it is that there is this abiding sense of calm amid so much of what might be expected to lead to scenes of disorder and to unseemly exhibitions of the most unrestrained emotional excitement, why the desperate, passionate prayers, the surging inward emotion finding vent in quiet weeping, in breasts heaving with sobs which cannot be repressed, in throats choking with an emotion which prevents articulate speech, do not burst all bounds and degenerate into wild, hysterical excitement (which it ought to do by all rules of ordinary psychology), he will get the answer now in Wales which St. Paul would have given him in Corinth, or Francis in Italy, or Tauler in the Rhineland, or Wesley in England; that this quivering, throbbing, singing, praying crowd knows and feels the immediate presence and power of a great unseen reality,the Holy Spirit, impalpable, invisible, inaudible, and yet recognized by every fiber of the soul. The presence of the Master, promised to his disciples, is with his worshipers, is manifested in the "gifts" of the spirit, and is revealed in the calm, exultant expectancy which subdues all undue excitement.

### "SPEAKING IN A TONGUE."

The "speaking in a tongue,"—strange, ejaculatory prayer,—a gift which St. Paul described as worthless, has, Dr. Lindsay says, repeated itself in a great number of revivals.

It appeared in the "prophets" of the Cevennes, in the later decades of the seventeenth century among the Calvinists of France; in the "ecstatic virgins" who were the centers of a religious awakening in the Roman Catholic Tyrol in the earlier decades of the nineteenth century; in the almost contemporary Irvingite movement in the west of Scotland; and in many a medieval revival.

THE TWO CHIEF "GIFTS" IN ALL REVIVALS.

But in all revivals there have appeared the gift of speaking the Word of God, the prophetic ministry, and the corresponding gift of discernment bestowed upon the hearers. The prophetic ministry died down in the early Church, and never regained its first recognized position, "but it always reappears during a time of revival, and with it the double gift of magnetic speech and spiritual discernment." The divine principle of selection has shown itself utterly careless of all ecclesiastical arrangements. Ordination has never been a necessary thing for preachers at revivals.

### SPIRITUAL VERSUS HYSTERICAL.

To the gibe of superior persons of all times, from Celsus in the second century to Professor Huxley in the nineteenth, who refer revivals to disordered brain or physical hysteria, Dr. Lindsay replies, with Maeterlinck, that some of the greatest leaders in religious awakenings were men of the soundest brains, of the most determined wills, and of the most persistent energy. At its very birth, Christianity found at its side other cults marked by ecstasies, visions, and wondrous signs. But the Christian assemblies differed from the orgiac rites of Oriental paganism. The manifestations in the latter were stereotyped and fragmentary. In the former, there was a great wealth of expression. But the great contrast was that Christian enthusiasm purified and exalted the moral and religious life. So "the influence of revivals has almost invariably been to deepen and quicken the sense of moral responsibility, and to sustain, elevate, and purify the moral life." They are also followed by attempts at social reformation.

### EFFECTS ON WOMEN, THOUGHT, AND SONG.

Three other interesting facts are noted by Dr. Lindsay. Revivals have all, or almost all, given rise to an outburst of Christian song. Another almost universal characteristic of revivals is a recognition of the value of women as religious guides and comforters. Paul did forbid women to "speak" in churches, but he did not prevent them praying or prophesying in the church, for he insisted that when they did so they must have a covering on their heads. The third characteristic is "the unobtrusive way in which great revivals have influenced Christian doctrines, generally on their practical or experimental side."

## THE BRITISH MUSEUM LIBRARY.



THE BRITISH MUSEUM, LONDON.

IN a recent issue of Good Words, Messrs. A. W. Jarvis and R. Turtle describe, from its humble beginnings, the "Greatest Library in the World,"—of course, that of the British Museum. There is a particularly interesting illustration of a part of the library rarely seen, even by the readers,—behind the scenes, where the books are kept in their presses.

The library, which now contains, roughly, two and one-half million books, originated with some 40,000 volumes, valued (with collections appertaining) at £80,000 (\$400,000), and presented to the nation by Sir Hans Sloane, in 1753, by will, "being fully convinced that nothing tends more to raise our ideas of the power, wisdom, goodness, providence, and other perfections of the Deity, or more to the comfort and well-being of his creatures, than the enlargement of our knowledge of the works of nature."

Sir Hans Sloane had wished that his library might remain at his Chelsea residence; but this proving too far out of town, it was removed to Montague House, Bloomsbury, with seven and one-half acres of land.

"A pleasant corner room in the converted mansion, overlooking the gardens and the fields beyond, was allotted to readers. The number was at first very small; only five for the month of July."

And this was the beginning of the famous reading-room. As time went on the library was immensely added to,—by George II., who presented some exceedingly rare and costly volumes; by George III., who presented 33,000 tracts about the Civil War,—the "King's Tracts," as they are known; by George IV., who presented 65,250 volumes, about 20,000 pamphlets,

and a superb array of maps, topographical drawings, and prints; and by other donors, until Montague House had become quite impossibly small. By 1845 it had disappeared, and two years later the new and present building, with the reading-room as it now stands, was completed at a cost of £750,000 (\$3,750,000). It will be remembered that by the Copyright Act the British Museum is entitled to a free copy of everything published in the United Kingdom. If there is more than one edition, the nation is entitled to a copy of the handsomest edition. This, of course, is the way in which the library is chiefly kept up.

During 1903, the additions to the department comprised 27,370 volumes and pamphlets (including 127 atlases, etc., and 1,405 books of music). Of this number, 5,901 were presented, 13,904 received under provisions of Copyright Act, 376 by colonial copyright, 581 by international exchange, and 21,918 by purchase. The total number of articles received, exclusive of newspapers, during the year was 108,123.

Specially rare or sumptuous books are kept under lock and key, and only permitted to be inspected in the inner reading-room of the museum, known as the "Large Room."

The collection of early printed Bibles is probably unsurpassed, and includes Cranmer's Bible and all the editions of the Great Bible. There are numerous examples, too, of those remarkable for their startling printers' errors and for the curious renderings of the translators. In the "Breeches Bible" we read, "Then the eies of them both were opened, and they knew that they were naked, and they sewed figge leaves together and made themselves breeches" (Genesis iii. 7); the "Treacle" Bible, "Is there not treacle at Gilead?" (Jeremiah viii. 22); the "Place-maker's Bible," "Blessed are the place-makers, for they shall be called the children of God" (Matthew v. 9). In the "Vinegar Bible" the "Parable of the Vinegar" appears in the chapter heading to Luke xx. Then there is the "Wife-Hater" Bible, "If any man come to Me, and hate not his father . . . yea, and his wife also" (Luke xiv. 26); the "Bugge," the "He," and the "She" Bibles. In this strange category, the "Wicked" Bible, however, holds first place. It is so called from the fact that the word "not" is omitted from the seventh commandment.

The printers of all these offending volumes are supposed to have been heavily fined, and every offending copy destroyed. Nevertheless, four are known to have escaped, one of which the British Museum possesses.

The most valuable book is considered to be the "Mazarine" Bible, the earliest book printed with movable type; but the famous Mainz Psalter is nearly if not quite as valuable, a copy having brought recently £4,950 (\$24,750), the highest price ever paid at an auction for a single printed book.



THE GREAT READING-ROOM OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

The printed catalogue is a monument of industry with which Dr. Garnett's name will always be associated.

Previous to 1881, the catalogue was in manuscript, and had by that year become a veritable library in itself, consisting of no less than 3,000 huge folio volumes. The saving of space effected by the use of

printing has been enormous. Twenty-odd years, with their thousands of thousands accessions, have since rolled by, and yet at the present day the volumes of the catalogue do not reach one-third of that number.

There are ten great classes which have a total of 515 subdivisions. As a general rule, every book bears the number of the press to which it belongs, the letter of the shelf, and, generally, a third mark indicating its place on the shelf. Thus, a book marked 12,236, aaa, 7, would be found in press number 12,236, on the shelf lettered aaa, and would be the seventh book on the shelf.

There are about forty miles of shelving in the library, divided into seven sections. In 1903, the number of visits of readers is given as 233,674, and the number of volumes issued as 1,587,231. The diameter of the reading-room is 140 feet, the height of the dome 106 feet, and the number of readers who can be seated

at the readers' tables at one time is 458.

Surrounding it is a network of galleries in concentric circles, four stories high, and angles and straight corridors in three stories. This is known as the New Library. Throughout its interior there are no walls; all the divisions being formed by double book-presses, in which the books are placed fore-edge to fore-edge, with only iron lattice intervening.

# THE PROPOSED AFFILIATION OF AMERICAN AND GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

SINCE, some time ago, an exchange of German and American university professors was suggested (somewhat in the manner lately practised by Harvard University and certain prominent French authors), the subject has been from time to time discussed in our newspapers and periodicals. A writer signing himself "L.,"—evidently one speaking with authority, presumably a university professor or instructor,—has, in the Deutsche Rundschau (Berlin), an interesting and philosophical article, written from the

German standpoint, on "The German Scholars Abroad and the Exchange of Scholars with America." This paper, after giving at some length the rationale and history of the settlement and activity of German scholars and writers in divisions of the German Empire other than their native ones, in England, France, Austria, Russia, etc., ends thus:

As now, in our vacation trips on railroads or on steamers, the distances have grown; as we no longer confine ourselves to Switzerland or the Tyrol, but seek

out by water or land distant climes; as our entire in tercourse to-day is of wholly different dimensions from formerly; as international commerce has more and more become the center of the traffic of the nations, so also in this field. Following community of language, as early as the middle of the nineteenth century the famous author was going from Old England to the United States to lecture. So began Thackeray's lectures on "The Four Georges." This has been the oftener repeated the nearer we come to the present. From mere lecture courses came closer relations, calls to American universities of Englishmen, Germans, and others, for shorter or longer terms. So far as this concerns German scholars, it has had a similar character to those "traveling years" (well known to us) of young university teachers, in Switzerland, Austria, etc. The difference was, ordinarily, in the necessity for the use of the foreign tongue. Similarly, in the last thirty years the ways of German university teachers have led to Japan.

### AMERICAN TEACHERS IN GERMANY.

What is most noticeable,—and what, especially in America, has been most noticed,—continues this writer, is that several years ago an American physicist received a call to a German university, which, moreover, he declined.

It has thus come to talking of a plan for an exchange

of German and American university teachers as a sort of starring engagement, and considerable weight has been given to the matter, at least by its repeated mention in the daily press. Neither have communications been wanting that this or that German university teacher has followed or will follow a call, for a few weeks or months, to America. It is beginning to be more noticeable when a scholar from America is lecturing in Germany—and in Berlin, too!

### AMERICAN SCHOLARS WELCOME IN GERMANY.

Several younger men from German universities have been for some years in American universities. They have found there more or less what they sought. Some among them are prosperous, and thankful to have attained there what was not permitted them at home. The like will also be repeated in the future.

Should it really be repeated, should one or another scholar of America come to our colleges (as to-day already Hollanders, Swedes, Swiss, Austrians, have come)—in God's name! we will rejoice that America has got so far as to produce scholars in excess of her demand whom we in Germany can use! At all events, this sort of competition is of the pleasantest and most peaceful kind. It is no menace to us, like the alleged "American peril" of steel-manufacture and locomotive-building.

## LIMITATIONS OF THE MODERN DRAMA.

HE celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of Schiller's death gives occasion to Konrad Falke, writing in the Deutsche Monatsschrift, to draw a comparison between the modern drama and that of the great poet's time. The literary movement from whose spell we have not yet emerged had its origin in the eighties. It was a new period of "Storm and Stress," and the moderns were but too anxious to claim kindred with the fiery youth of more than a hundred years ago who started a similar current, the outcome of which was the German classics. But the two periods differ, not only in that the modern classic is rather slow in making its appearance, but also in that the genesis of the two streams is diametrically different. The realism for which the moderns strive differs radically from the realism of their predecessors.

The struggle of the earlier time arose from the elemental craving for freedom, for a vent to the superabundance of strength and individuality,—it is a cry of the heart. The moderns, on the contrary, seek to gain strength and individuality,—it is a hunger of the intellect. Realism, as conceived in the newer time, is objective, takes for its themes the present, the near-by, the every-day, with all its distracting details. To take a particular piece of matter and reproduce it with photographic fidelity,—that is the false conception of the

realism of to-day; to take a typical case, which will answer for all time, to idealize it, intensify its meaning by abstracting insignificant details which tend merely to belittle and confuse,—that is the true realism for which the drama should strive, and which survives.

There is bound to be a dissonance between the picture which the dramatist should portray and that which is presented to him by the actual world. The great poets of all time, therefore, have always created a world of their own, choosing their heroes from epochs when the elementary forces were predominant, or could still break through cultural restraint.

The drama is the image of life, but the animating principle of life is conflict, and conflict requires power in order to culminate in success. Since the conflict itself is a pleasure to the strong, so is the sight of a conflict carried on by forceful combatants a pleasure. In the heightening of the consciousness of our strength by a sympathetic live participation, and its simultaneous suppression,—since we are but spectators and not actors,—therein lies the secret of the specific effect of the drama, suspense.

In modern life, spontaneous manifestations of will are thrust back as aimless, and that which constitutes interest in a modern is not what he does, but what he suffers. The modern drama, therefore, soon became a specialized representation of varied states of the soul, and this not by words, for the modern has renounced, not only action, but speech. The real emotions of the modern Psyche must be divined, and thus arose symbolism, the study of environment, of temperament. "What the modern dramatists lack absolutely is the spirit of fierce revolt."

Ibsen, who forms an exception, is a moralist who concerns himself with social problems,—a moralist of such preëminent dramatic endowment that his pulpit must needs be the stage. But that which cripples his heroes' will is the illusion, offspring of the preponderant scientific culture of our generation, that the will is not free. Hence the depressing atmosphere of most of Ibsen's plays. The spectators and the characters themselves crave to break by main force through the limitations imposed by this scientific conception of the universe, to regain freedom of feeling and of will. Ibsen was the first of the moderns, and is at once their chief. "He has honestly fought the fight of the modern man, but he has not fought it to the finish,—he has not come out a victor. And herein lies his limitation."

The German writer discusses a number of German dramatists who followed Ibsen's initiative. Sudermann's problem plays have little to recommend them outside of some happy stage effects. Maeterlinck's most effective piece, "Monna Vanna," deals, it is true, with a picturesque epoch, the Renaissance, but the characters do not give us a convincing picture of the time. The plays of less noted writers are described as false in tone, paltry, or offensively sensual.

It is no longer great destinies, but private concerns, that interest us; no longer what is ripe, but the unripe and the over-ripe. Aside from the problems, it is the curiosity to peer into pathology—en miniature—which crowds the theaters.

Naturalism has drawn only two plays from problems of social life,—Tolstoi's "The Power of Darkness" and Hauptmann's "The Weavers." Behind "The Power of Darkness" we have a poet who regards the world with the eyes of the moralist; behind "The Weavers," one who observes it as a professor.

Only in our time is it possible that a poet with such a pronounced epic gift should dare to write pieces for a period of more than fifteen years of which one is worse than the other. But this is fully explained by the circumstance that Gerhart Hauptmann chimes in with the great craze of our intellectual science-objectivism. . . . I have commenced this very summary survey of the modern drama with Ibsen and concluded it with Hauptmann. These two characters, a beginning and an end, appear to me to be the two poles between which the world of thought of the moderns moves. Ibsen's doctrine is a strong subjectivism, but it does not pass beyond the pessimism which underlies it, and therefore does not liberate; Hauptmann's doctrine is a decided objectivism, which frees still less. . . . Both, in their inmost selves, are broken natures, and, as a concentrated echo of an equally broken culture, have become significant. But precisely because this view of life has gradually grown general is it approaching its zenith, the turn into the opposite way. Closer than many deem may the time be when what is sought for in art will not be the reverberation of existing misery, but once again that of a longing for greatness and freedom.

It is significant that to-day the great actress stands above the great actor and is accorded a higher place. While in the lower strata of society prodigious force of will is exerted to attain the light of culture, the upper thousands have lost touch with earth.

Not a noble feminine, but an effeminate strain, a strain of impotence, of nervosity, of giving out, runs through the art of the present. The impersonators on the stage no longer act, no longer will anything,—they only are, and they are nearly always wretchedly unhappy. The beauty of natural sensuousness has been distorted into the ugliness of the morbidly sensual, the perverse. Sarah Bernhardt, Duse, Eysoldt, are impersonators of the languishing, the yearning, the morbid. The sky is always storm laden, but it rarely lightens, and the lightning never strikes. The elemental is lacking.

### HOW RIVER-BANKS ARE FORMED:

A STUDY on the formation of river-shores and its influence on fisheries is contributed to the illustrated magazine Kringsjaa, of Christiania. The writer bases his argument on the fact that the poles do not take part in the rotation of the earth. A river running north or south will therefore, in the measure it approaches the poles, lose some of the speed of the water. The greatest speed would be on the equator. A body moving in the direction of one of the poles will therefore, by degrees, come to regions which move slower than the body itself. The contrary

takes place in bodies moving from the pole toward the equator.

As the rotation of the earth is from east to west, the water running in the direction of the pole will, therefore, on arriving in lower parts of the globe, on account of its greater speed, press against the east shore of the river. On account of this lateral pressure, this shore,—that is to say, the right one,—will be high, while the left one will be low and exposed to inundations. This explains why on the northern hemisphere most human dwelling-places are found on the

right side of rivers, which is almost always more

protected.

Everywhere we find this peculiarity evident. but particularly in European Russia, with its flat and loose soil. Of rivers in Germany, the Vistula is a good type of the shore formation. The Rhine pushes already from its upper course at the right, and from Boselia upward there are signs that the river bed formerly lay more to the westward. The law can also be extended

to long lakes, being in the meridian. The right side is, as a rule, the more elevated one, and the greater depths are also found there.

Applying these observations to the fishing industry, we obtain most valuable hints. The two sides will shelter different kinds of fish. On account of depth and current, the big fish will be found on the right side, while the smaller bait fish must be sought for on the opposite side of the river.

## HARNESSING THE TIDES.

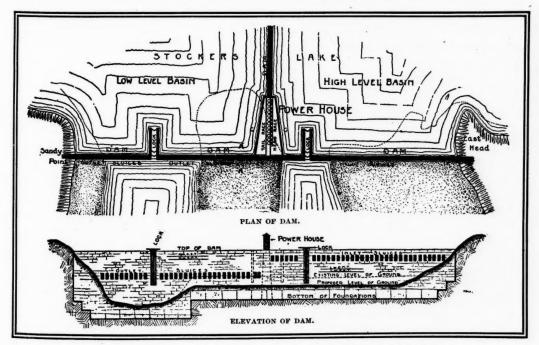
In view of the fact that England will have to rely in future upon other means than coal to generate power, Mr. James Saunders contributes to the Engineering Review (London) an interesting article upon the "Utilization of Tidal Power."

The British Isles are poorly off for waterfalls. If every available water-power were used, the annual saving in coal would be 1,200,000 tons, a mere fraction of the present output of 230,000,000 tons. About 150,000 horse-power, working ten hours a day, would be generated. It is impossible to utilize the direct heat of the sun, owing to climatic conditions. To rely on the uncertain wind is hopeless. The largest wind-

power generator in existence does not exceed 60 horse-power. There remains the utilization of tidal power.

A few schemes are already in existence, the plan generally adopted being to impound the rising tide, and on its ebb utilize the power by water-wheels. This is only available on the ebb, and is not constant. Mr. Saunders gives some figures of the rise and fall of tides. He says:

On the west coast of Ireland and the south coast of England the highest tides occur three transits after the new and full moon, and along the east coast of England they take place four transits after the new and full moon, and in the River Thames five transits occur in the same epoch.



DIAGRAMS SHOWING THE HARBOR TIDAL-POWER SCHEME, CHICHESTER, ENGLAND.

The table given below shows how the tides vary along the coast.

,	Springs. Rise in feet.	Neaps. Rise in feet
London docks	2094 6 15½4 11½4 9 1994 42 38	173/4 41/5 109/4 91/4 61/6 16 33

In order to utilize this variation of height between high and low tide, a considerable area of tidal water must be inclosed. In order to minimize expense, the natural configuration of the coast must be taken into consideration. Mr. Saunders describes schemes for using the tides at Chichester Harbor, in Menai Straits, and in the Bristol Channel. The first provides for an average of 8,000 horse-power per day. Reckoning the value of an electric horse-power at £45 (\$225) per annum, this would give an annual income of £36,000 (\$180,000), which would justify a capital expenditure of £300,000 (\$1,500,000). The Menai Straits scheme would yield 15,500 electric horse-power a day valued at £65,250 (\$326,250). This would justify a capital expenditure of £543,750 (\$2,718,750), just about

the amount that would be required by the scheme. The last scheme, that of the Bristol Channel, is the most ambitious of all. The proposal is to dam up the mouth of the Severn. Owing to the enormous tidal rise in the channel, the daily energy generated would be 260,000 electric horse-power, worth £1,170,000 (\$5,850,000), and justifying a capital outlay of the huge amount of £9,750,000 (\$48,750,000). The total cost of the scheme would be £200,000 (\$1,000,000) less than this.

A description of one scheme will suffice to show the general idea. Chichester Harbor is 7,380 acres in area, the entrance being less than a mile in extent. The proposal is to build a huge dam across the mouth, and also to divide the harbor in two, the configuration lending itself easily thereto. The Chichester side would be the high-water basin, the Hayling side the low-water basin. The rising tide fills the high basin full. The top third of this is emptied through the turbines into the low-water basin. which it fills up to one-third of the height of the This in turn is emptied out to sea at low water. By this means a constant power is obtained, although at first sight it appears to be a waste not using the incoming and outflowing water. A dam would also be built at Langston to stop the flow from Langston Harbor.

# WALKING AS A MEANS OF EDUCATION.

T is quite unusual, in these degenerate days, to find pedestrianism advocated anywhere. In Longman's Magazine (London) for September, the Rev. A. N. Cooper, known in England as "The Walking Parson," is loud in his praises of the educational advantages of walking, and it must be admitted that he makes out an excellent case for himself, and that his paper is full of useful hints to pedestrians. When Mr. Cooper speaks of a walk he means a walk to Paris, Hamburg, Copenhagen, or even Rome or Budapest. The educational possibilities of walking, he says, have never been adequately set forth, "possibly from the dearth of walkers." Is there such a dearth?

The roads of every country in Europe are familiar to Mr. Cooper, except those of Russia, Turkey, Greece, and Sweden. He has walked through France from north to south, and nearly from east to west, through much of Germany, Italy, and Bohemia, to say nothing of Spain, Portugal, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, and Holland. His article is specially valuable, as it is mainly intended for those of limited means,

"as limited as the means of servants and mechanics . . . that large class of young men who are anxious to improve themselves and do not quite see how to set about it." The cost of a walking tour, Mr. Cooper says, is so low that many people will hardly believe it when stated.

The educational advantages of walking he considers to be: First, learning geography in the most practical way, and also much about national habits and characteristics, and the reasons for them; second, learning at first hand the true character of the peoples of the earth; acquisition of foreign languages, Mr. Cooper rightly insisting on the fact that the moment you are off a very beaten track you must speak the language of the country; fourth, rubbing off angles; and fifth, lastly, and principally, laying in a store of health for the year's work to come.

Mr. Cooper's paper is very interesting and sensible. "The wanderings of a man with his eyes open," he says, "will greatly modify his ideas as to national shortcomings."

## LIFE ON VESUVIUS.

THE unique experiences of Director Matteucci, of the Royal Observatory on the crater of Vesuvius, are presented for the first time, it is said, in the October Cosmopolitan. This observatory was built more than sixty years ago, on the little hill of San Salvatore, at the foot of the great cone. The building contains laboratories, offices, and living-rooms for the director, who is a member of the faculty of the University of Naples. In April, 1872, during one of the most awful eruptions of which any record exists, the observatory was bombarded with red-hot stones from the crater. All the windows were broken, and the building was set on fire, besides being surrounded by torrents of hot lava.

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Professor Matteucci relates several instances showing the tremendous risks involved in this method of studying the volcano and its moods through continuous and intimate contact.

The tale of death of my mountain would fill a whole number of this magazine. On the wall at the entrance to the observatory are placed a couple of tablets commemorating the death of tourists and guides alike who were overwhelmed in the awful eruption of 1872. There were many days during the years 1895-99 when I thought

the observatory positively doomed to destruction, after all its years of service. A secondary crater opened up hideously, vomiting fire and ashes, lava streams and rocks, between the observatory and the foot of the cone, filling up the Piano delle Ginestre. I waited and waited, reluctant to leave while my senses were with me; and at last, to my unspeakable relief (I feared for my beloved collections rather than for myself), the great rivers of lava heaped themselves up into a hill of considerable height, which formed a kind of bulwark for the eminence of San Salvatore on which my house is built.

During the exceptionally violent eruption of 1900, Professor Matteucci was high up on the great cone of Vesuvius, not far from the crater's edge, taking photographs of the different phases of the eruption.

The energy of the explosions was increasing enormously; and aware that a still greater outbreak was preparing and there was not a moment to lose, I ran away from the edge of the abyss, calling loudly to my assistants, who followed me at once, knowing that the conditions foreboded a possible catastrophe. We could not run very fast, however, because the cone was covered with immense quantities of loose stone that had been ejected during the past few days; and then, moreover, we had to be constantly looking back to watch



PROFESSOR MATTEUCCI STANDING BY A THIRTY-TON MASS OF ROCK WHICH FELL FROM THE HEIGHT OF A MILE AND A HALF AND NARROWLY MISSED HIM.

the action of the great volcano, even though thereby we should court a fate worse than that of Lot's wife.

I remember we fled westward, toward the Plain of the Fumaroli, or smoke-vents. We were hardly sixty feet away from the edge of the great crater, however, when a truly fearful explosion took place. At that moment I had no other thought than that of my scientific work, and so I stopped and turned eagerly toward the stupendous column of smoke that rose into the sky. My assistant and our guides were farther off.

Instantly I found myself in the midst of a shower of hurtling stones. How I avoided them I cannot say. They whistled and screamed like projectiles in battle. I did my best to avoid the larger rock masses, which always fall first. I bent as low as possible, with arms and hands trying to save my head. My camera was smashed to pieces, and while stooping to regain its lens I lost my balance and fell into a mass of scalding-hot ashes. I believed myself lost, but a second or two later realized that the fatal moment had passed.

I rose in great pain, gathered up the pieces of my camera, for it contained some very valuable films; and then, profiting by a quiet interval, I crawled down the mountain, imperatively ordering my companions to leave everything and come with me. In our flight we lost many fine examples of bombs and scories covered

with a glittering metallic glaze.

On reaching the foot of the cone, I did not at first realize that I was hurt. I was most grateful to have escaped death. The guides, however, pointed out that my chin, and, indeed, all my face, was covered with wounds and bruises. My clothes were scorched and my hands and arms bleeding from many wounds. Later on I found that I was very badly bruised about the body; my left foot was very badly hurt, and, last and worst of all, my right knee had been struck by an enormous bomb in its rebound.

I may say that the molten or red-hot stone masses ejected from the crater are of many different sizes and weights, and ascend to many different heights, according to the force of the explosion driving them. I find that the first to be ejected are the solid masses at the bottom of the crater. Those bombs, which, by the rotary movement imparted to them, rise to the greatest height,—sometimes a matter of miles,—are much denser and heavier than the scoriæ, and consequently fall sooner. Afterward come the smaller fragments and the lipilli. The impalpable powder and sand are caught up in the great whirls and globes of smoke, and are carried into still more elevated regions of the upper air, when they are transported by wind enormous distances.

My every-day work consists of observing dynamic and meteorological phenomena; noting carefully the movements and aspects of the volcano, and classifying and rearranging all the existing and newly gathered

materials.

I rise with or before the sun, and do my own cooking. Naturally, this is not elaborate, frequently consisting of bread and cheese, or a dish of macaroni, which requires very little "cooking" indeed. How can I, when my beloved volcano is in eruption, and I should be counting the number of explosions per minute, occupy my mind with thoughts of mere food? Every day I calculate the total number of explosions, examine and collect the matter ejected, and take photographs at very close range.

Sometimes in the dead of the night, or at dawn, my guides take out my laboratory tent and pitch it on the very verge of the crater, or on the side of the cone. During the last and present year, Vesuvius has been in what I call a "Stromboli" phase,—that is to say, eruptions of projectiles only, without the issue of liquid lava. This activity has kept me on the alert for many

months.

## EXTRACTING GOLD FROM SEA WATER.

A BOUT forty years have passed since the first authoritative announcement of the presence of small quantities of gold in sea water. Repeated examinations by competent analysts have shown clearly that, while special conditions have resulted in an apparently complete disappearance of this metal and its salts from the surface waters off the coasts of the continents discharging large rivers into the sea, nevertheless the water of mid-ocean and that far removed from the mouths of large rivers contain gold and gold compounds in quantities varying from one-half to one grain (32-64 milligrams) per ton of water. The value of the gold contained in a ton of sea water would thus be from two to four cents. Can a process be devised which would render its extraction profitable?

Professor de Wilde discusses this question in a recent number of the Archives des Sciences Physiques et Naturelles (Geneva). He begins his paper by discussing the origin of the gold of the sea.—the wearing away of the gold-bearing rock

of the mountains by the action of the elements, of glaciers, etc., and the transportation of the pulverized material by streams to the sea. This form of natural hydraulic mining has been in progress for ages. As is well known, a considerable proportion of the gold obtained from the Transvaal mines exists in so fine a state of division that it will remain, when stirred with water, in a state of suspension for days, even for weeks. It is easy to see how, therefore, in the troubled waters of the ocean notable quantities of this "floating gold" may be carried in suspension for long periods. It is not unlikely that much of it passes into a soluble form, as is well known in the case of the silver found in sea water and sea plants; ultimately, especially in those parts of the ocean where rivers discharge great quantities of finely divided organic matter into the sea, it assumes a denser form and settles to the

After discussing at considerable length the methods employed by the several investigators

to ascertain the presence and amount of the gold contained in various samples of sea water, in rock salt and other saline deposits, in sea plants, in oyster-shells, etc., Professor de Wilde points out that these methods, though serving well for the purpose for which they were devised, would be of no value for the actual commercial extraction of the precious metal, because of their excessive cost. If Professor Liversidge's calculations are correct, the water of the oceans contains over one hundred billion tons of gold, of a value of seven billions of billions of dollars! Yet, enormous as this quantity is, we must remember that it is distributed through about four hundred million cubic miles of water, and the value of the share of each ton of sea water is reduced by such subdivision to the modest amount of from two to four cents!

#### ECONOMIES OF PROCESS.

Assuming with M. de Foville, at one time director of the Paris mint, that all the gold ever mined would not bulk more than about twenty-one thousand tons, a wonderful opportunity is here given the statistician to calculate the result of the discovery of a really economical method for the extraction of the ocean's hoarded treasure!

Passing now to the consideration of the several patented processes (including his own) which have been devised for this purpose, Professor de Wilde admits at once that no goldbearing rock could be mined and extracted at a cost anywhere near four cents per ton. But with ocean water the problem presents entirely other features. The economical operation of pumps; the possible employment of the power to be derived from tides; the automatic or semi-automatic transference of large masses of water by taking advantage of tidal movements; the comparatively small cost of land at suitable

points on the coast; the automatic maintenance of the supply of fresh sea water by the ocean currents,—these and many similar considerations are passed in review.

The chemical operations involved are quite simple. In de Wilde's method a dilute acid solution of stannous chloride ("tin salt") is mixed with the sea water, the gold present being thus converted into the well-known "Purple of Cassius." Addition of milk-of-lime then causes the formation of a precipitate of magnesium hydroxide (at the expense of the magnesium chloride in the sea water), which settles quickly, carrying down all the "Purple of Cassius" with The supernatant water is run off, and fresh quantities of sea water are stirred with the precipitate until the latter has become deep brown in color, indicating saturation. Treatment of the deposit with a very dilute solution of alkali cyanide dissolves every trace of the gold and leaves it pure white again, ready for further use. From the cyanide solution the gold can be extracted by any one of several common methods; de Wilde prefers precipitation with copper chloride. The resulting mixture of copper and gold cyanides is heated in the air and washed with acid; the gold remains in the metallic form. There is practically no loss.

Within a year a company has been organized in England for the commercial extraction of gold from sea water. Sir William Ramsay is reported to have been retained as consulting chemist. The extraction method to be employed is kept secret, but the probability is that one has been devised which is sufficiently economical to give satisfactory returns. Professor de Wilde closes his paper with the statement that the presence of gold to the value of not less than two cents per ton of sea water can, in his opinion, make its extraction profitable.

## THE VIRTUES OF SEA WATER.

EXPERIMENTS made in France have convinced the doctors of the efficacy of sea water in the treatment of various diseases. Sea water taken internally is a tonic. Rabateau, who tried the effect of the water in bread, declared that his appetite and his strength increased. Other experimenters declare that from 150 to 200 grams of sea water act as a very excellent purgative. Other doctors claim that they have made cures of several dissimilar diseases. An interesting summary of these efforts is given by Henri de Parville in the Annales. The water of the sea is a solution of complex

composition. In Norway and Sweden the natives use it when they have no saline mineral water. Dr. Fédor, who used it internally ten years, gasified it with carbonic acid to rid it of its impurities and to counteract its bitterness. Thus prepared, it can be taken as drink by invalids. Fédor used it with success in treating chronic gastric catarrh and diabetes, and in child's dyspepsia, and in every case the water revived the appetite and the strength. Szego and Kurr say that it (the water of the sea) regulates the bodily functions, ameliorates the general condition of persons suffering from gas-

tric trouble, and acts directly upon the nutrition. Dr. Kurr states that he has nearly cured a case of chronic bronchitis, with emphyseme, by administering large doses of sea water. Quinton says: "The vital center which is the seat of life, the center in which men and animals live, is of marine origin." The theory follows:

Man is a marine animal by descent (like all animals). Now, in order to render to the human organism its primitive environment, which a long line of descent has modified, it is feasible to place it (the organism) in sea water, or its original environment. It is easy enough to admit that if infection is really the point of departure of mental maladies, it (infection) may be combated by marine serum, because using that means makes it possible to wash out the toxins which clog and destroy the central brain-cells as rust, if allowed to rest upon the steel, clogs and ruins machinery, and that it may be possible to renew the strength of the brain-cells by placing them in sea water.

At the office of the Society of Biology, Dr. Marës and Dr. Pelletrier have of late tried the application of marine serum in the cases of lunatics, and the effect has been excellent.

Insanity is now recognized as a disease, due to the fact that the brain is infected by microbes (or toxins), just as the lungs are infected by Koch's bacilli. Doctors are beginning to admit infection as the cause of melancholy, precocious dementia, and paralysis, and chronic delirium is probably more or less due to cerebral infection. Acting on that theory, the two doctors of the Society of Biology who have administered

marine serum have noted that the general improvement was marked. Patients have gained strength and weight from the beginning of the treatment. A note from Robert Simon and Réne Quinton has been forwarded to the corresponding academies of France on the treatment of tuberculosis by sea water. Out of eighteen cases there were only three failures. Injections of sea water augmented sleep and strength and diminished the cough, expectoration, and night sweats, and the stethoscopic symptoms were very favorably modified. In some cases the increase in weight was remarkable (38 grams, 42 grams, 55 grams per day). The medium length of treatment was in all cases sixty days. It is to be noted that the treatment was made in Paris, and in some cases while the patients carried on their daily work.

It must be understood, however, that the action of the sea water is not divine. Therefore, its power cannot be made manifest when the original elements have been destroyed. Sea water is not the creator of human life, and therefore diseased brains and diseased bodies may be recuperated by the water of the sea, but not re-created if dead. One of the best results, noted in cases of dementia, is the rapid functional restoration of the digestive organs. The general nutrition receives a spur, the appetite revives. (The victims of melancholy eat very little; they do not eat until forced to eat, because the liver is inactive.) In cases of palsy, also, it has been stated that the effect of sea water is excellent.

## THE FOOD VALUE OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF BREAD.

MANY are the kinds of bread, and each has its sincere advocates. The man in the street is filled with wonder at the diverse opinions put forward by hygienists, and well he may be; yet the explanation is fairly simple. It is all very well to conduct careful analyses of the various forms of bread offered for sale in the shops and on the basis of these figures to decide for us which we are to eat. Yet it is easy to see that the mere fact that such-and-such a variety contains more phosphoric acid, for example, does not by any means prove that from it the system obtains a larger quantity of this valuable substance than from another variety which gives a lower result upon analysis. The digestive organs are fearfully and wonderfully made, and they often decline to make use of material furnished them by a well-disposed caterer. It is therefore necessary, not only to know what our bread contains, but also how its

constituents are assimilated, before we can really judge of its food value.

In a recent issue of the Comptes Rendus, M. Pierre Fauvel describes a series of experiments conducted upon himself for the purpose of deciding, if possible, the vexed question of the relative values of white and whole wheat breads. He begins by referring to the fault found by hygienists with white bread because of its small content of gluten and phosphoric acid, and the consequent advocacy of the use of various flours from which the bran has not been removed. The experiments of M. Girard,—from which their author concluded that "the hull must be rejected as possessing but insignificant food value,"-are not by M. Fauvel considered satisfactory. The bran used had been washed and deprived of its soluble constituents; it had not been previously ground or masticated; the experimenter made use of a diet quite different

from his ordinary one during the experiments, and hence the digestive fluids were probably not in their normal condition.

M. Fauvel has been a vegetarian for years; he prepared for the tests by confining himself for months to a diet practically identical with that to be used during the experimental period. This period lasted three weeks; on corresponding days of the several weeks exactly the same food in the same amount was eaten, except that the bread used in the first week was a fine quality of white, in the second week whole wheat (Kneipp bread), and in the third a very brown army bread. Each day, four hundred grams (about fourteen ounces) of bread was eaten. A careful study was made of the effects produced, by means of urinary analyses.

The whole wheat bread contained the entire grain, and also a little rye. Analyses of the various breads showed the percentages of phosphoric acid (anhydride) and nitrogen to be, respectively:

White bread	0.175	1.08
Whole wheat bread	0.582	1.23
Army bread	0.264	1.23

It is not worth while to give in detail the results of the urinary analyses; the following

points will be of interest: Although the whole wheat bread contains between three and four times as much phosphoric acid as the white, the amount assimilated was apparently less than a fourth greater. Army bread, containing half again as much of this ingredient as the white, showed nearly as great an amount assimilated as the whole wheat, and about a fifth more than the white.

Study of the figures shows that the production of urea is most marked in the case of the army bread and least in that of the whole wheat, in spite of the fact that the white is poorest in nitrogen. M. Fauvel attributes this result to the peristalsis of the intestine brought about by the bran in the whole wheat flour, a noteworthy loss in weight being one of the symptoms. The ratio of uric acid to urea, and that of xanthouric compounds to urea, were both highest in the case of the whole wheat bread, and both lowest in that of the army bread. Summing up, M. Fauvel finds that whole wheat bread possesses few, if any, advantages as compared with white, and is distinctly inferior in food value to the brown army bread. Whether the same conclusion would be drawn from experiments upon other persons remains, of course, undecided.

# THE AMERICAN DISEASE.

N EURASTHENIA is often referred to as the American disease. Under this heading, Dr. William B. Pritchard treats of it in a recent issue of the *Dominion Medical Monthly*. As the author conceives it, neurasthenia is an American disease, indigenous to this soil and essentially a product of causative conditions peculiar to this country. That it now exists elsewhere, and probably always did, in a sporadic form, he does not doubt, but this is the home, this its soil, this the atmosphere in which it luxuriates.

Dr. Pritchard contends that neurasthenia never occurs in a fool; "neurasthenia may make a fool," he says, "but you cannot make a fool a neurasthenic. It is a disease of bright intellects—its victims are leaders and masters of men, each one a captain of industry. The political history of the world has been made largely by paranoiacs. Mohammed, Peter the Hermit, and Oliver Cromwell are examples in point, to go back no further. In each there was an imperative and impelling monomania. The world of literature, of art and of science, of fruitful endeavor in all higher fields, is indebted in an analogous degree to the neurasthenic analogously endowed

with an imperative and an impelling energy. Dr. Gould's list includes such names as Carlyle, Wagner, Huxley, Spencer, and many others."

Of fifty cases of neurasthenia reported by the author at the annual meeting of the Ontario Medical Association, in June, at which this paper was read, forty-two were American-born, the average age being thirty-seven. The oldest patient was sixty-two, and the youngest twentysix. Without a single exception, all were brain workers. Sixteen of these fifty had been makers of history in different spheres, some large, some small; mercantile, literary, religious, scientific, political, or economic. Two of the number were among the hundred captains of industry assembled in a list made to commemorate a national function celebrated a few years ago. By occupation, 13 were financiers, 6 lawyers, 3 clergymen, 2 merchants, 5 physicians, 5 brokers, 4 schoolteachers. Of the remaining twelve, 2 were professional politicians, 2 corporation officials, and 4 managers of large industrial plants. Four of the fifty were men of independent selfacquired means, who described themselves as having no occupation at the time of record. They have been included in the groups mentioned according to previous occupation. Four of this series were women,—1 a journalist, 1 an actress, and 2 of them teachers. Fourteen of the fifty were unmarried, their age average being relatively high,—namely, forty-four. The four females were all childless, though two of them were married.

We are informed by the author that it is the man of detail, the man great in everything except the qualities which make the general, who becomes the neurasthenic. It is the crime of attending to minutiæ which makes the nervous derelict. "The general," says the author, "is never a neurasthenic. It is the one flaw in the statue of true greatness. That quality, the highest, which helps us to select our lieutenants, is always lacking. The neurasthenic is the archtype of the pooh-bah. He is not only general, but also colonel, major, captain, and private. The penalty is inevitable. No man can do the work of four along higher lines without paying for it."

Fortunately, Dr. Pritchard holds that neurasthenia is essentially a recoverable affection. In

the majority of cases the recovery is complete and final. Moreover, the victim pays the whole penalty,—the disease is free from the law of entail. The high average standard of good health and nervous poise in the children of neurasthenic fathers has, in fact, been frequently noted.

The doctor does not believe that any individual case of neurasthenia ever originated in a single cause. "The list of stereotyped and empirically accepted causes," says he, "is a long one, and undergoes a progressive expansion from year to year. Overwork, worry, prolonged mental tension and anxiety, malnutrition from deprivation of food, sleep, and rest, toxemia of autogenous and heterogeneous sources, shock, trauma, reflex irritation, and as many more are on the list."

In conclusion, the author gives an outline of treatment consisting mainly of the application of galvanic electricity, rational exercise, and sufficient rest. Sleep must be secured and maintained, elimination regulated, and complicating accidents combated. Drugs are manifestly of secondary importance.

# THE ELIMINATION OF THE MOSQUITO.

THE unanimity with which the medical world has fixed the responsibility for malaria and yellow fever upon certain varieties of an insect that has made New Jersey famous renders every contribution to the literature on the subject of interest to the general public, particularly when it demonstrates by what means the possibility of infection may be removed. Under the title given in the heading of this resumé, Dr. Alvah H. Doty has a very interesting article in a recent issue of the Journal of the American Medical Association, in which he arrives at the following conclusions: First, that mosquitoes do not propagate without water, and, as a rule, the more offensive the water, the greater the propagation. Mosquitoes breed in cisterns, rain-water barrels, and cesspools in enormous number; other receptacles about the premises, no matter how small or where they are situated, may also serve as breeding-places. It is about our own homes, therefore, that the examination should first be made to ascertain where the propagation of this insect is carried on. Second, the life of the mosquito is not confined to a few days, but under various circumstances may extend over a period of weeks or months. Third, the first crop of mosquitoes which appears in the early summer, particularly in inland towns, is principally due to the deposit of eggs which have

hibernated during the winter months. Fourth, although there is conclusive evidence that mosquitoes are sometimes carried long distances from home, they do not willingly go far from their breeding-places, and it may be assumed that if a section is infested with mosquitoes breeding-places exist in the immediate vicinity.

Efforts to prevent the propagation of the mosquito consist in abolishing or removing receptacles which contain water. This applies to both large and small ground depressions, swamps, etc., and to portable and stationary receptacles about buildings. The scientific, practical, and radical method of removing water in ground depressions is by drainage or filling in, and the use of petroleum oil in these instances cannot be regarded as a substitute for this purpose, and should only be adopted as a temporary measure. In mosquito-infested districts our first action should be to remove, so far as possible, from dwelling-houses and other buildings all sorts of metal, glass, and wooden receptacles for water. Cisterns and rain · water barrels should be supplied with tight-fitting covers; by having the center of these covers constructed of wire netting, sufficient air is admitted. Roof leaders should be kept properly graded; otherwise parts of them may act as breeding-places for the mosquito. If ground depressions either about the premises or in the neighborhood cannot be drained or filled in, petroleum oil may be used as a temporary measure. The crude petroleum is probably superior to the refined oil, and should be used in the proportion of one pint of oil to a water surface of about twenty feet in diameter,—even a less amount of oil may be effective. This procedure should be repeated every two weeks. The method by which the oil destroys the larvæ or wigglers is probably not by a toxic effect, but by a mechanical one. The larvæ must come to the surface of the water

for air at least every two minutes.

In treating large bodies of water with petroleum, the ordinary garden sprinkling-pot is a good and practical method of distributing it. Experiments made with permanganate of potassium, bichloride of mercury, sulphate of copper, carbolic acid, etc., have shown that these agents are greatly inferior to petroleum for this purpose. Their action is slow, and the mosquito larvæ live in comparatively strong solutions. For instance, larvæ have remained active from one to three days in a 1-1500 solution of bichloride of mercury. Even comparatively strong solutions of carbolic acid or permanganate of potassium do not destroy them for some time. In some very exhaustive experiments made with sulphate of copper and lime for the destruction of mosquito larvæ the author found that these agents did not destroy the mosquito by a toxic effect, but slowly by clarifying the water and precipitating the organic matter which it contained, thereby removing the nourishment from the larvæ. Furthermore, it must be remembered that pools of water throughout the country may be used for drinking purposes, particularly by animals, and that the use of such agents as bichloride of mercury, carbolic acid, etc., are, therefore, unsafe. On the other hand, the petroleum oil is cheap, practically harmless, and destroys the larvæ at once, and, so far as we know at the present time, is superior to anything else for this purpose, provided proper drainage or filling in cannot be effected.

In the current issue of the Texas Medical News, Dr. D. Munroe devotes considerable attention to "The Mosquito as an Etiological Factor in Disease." The doctor is located in a section of Texas where malaria is common and yellow fever not unknown. At the close of his article

he says:

It is no longer a debatable question, but a demonstrated certainty, that malaria, in all its varied forms, is transmitted to man solely by the bite of a certain species of mosquito found in the so-called malarial localities, while it is also a proven fact that a tropical member of the mosquito family inoculates the human race with the yellow-fever germs. Therefore, the mos-



SPRAYING OIL ON A PESTILENT NOOK.

(Such small, insignificant spots may breed thousands of mosquitoes if they contain standing water.)

quito is no longer a pest to be endured, but is a serious menace to health at all times, and for that reason should be exterminated. To do this necessitates our studying the life and habits of the different species of mosquitoes found in our own Southern country.

Both the malarial and yellow-fever mosquitoes breed and live near or in the house, and do not wander over six hundred yards from their breeding-place. The female lays her eggs in still, fresh water, and they hatch out in two or three days into an air-breathing wiggler, and during the five days in which they remain in this stage they are compelled to come to the surface of this water every few moments to get air to breathe, and at the expiration of this time they develop into the characteristic winged mosquito and fly about the premises, hunting whom they may bite and annoy and inoculate.

But if each householder will see to it that every receptable holding water on or near the premises is emptied, drained, oiled, or securely screened, and attend to this duty every week during the warm weather, he will raise no mosquitoes on his premises to annoy and infect himself and family, nor that of his neighbor.

To free his house of all mosquitoes, each room should be securely closed by stopping all crevices and cracks and making therein a smudge of either sulphur, tobacco, or powdered pyretheum, or even formaldehyde, and keeping the room thus closed for three hours, at which time all the mosquitoes in the room will be dead,

## THE BIOLOGICAL SANCTIONS OF MARRIAGE.

A VALUABLE and much-needed paper on the evolutionary ethics of marriage and divorce is supplied by Dr. Woods Hutchinson in the *Contemporary Review* (London) for September. He states his theses at the outset, thus:

 That marriage is essentially neither a religious nor a civil institution, but a purely biologic one.

2. That marriage consists in the union of the sexes for such a term, and under such conditions, as will result in the production of the maximum number of offspring capable of surviving, in each particular species, climate, and grade of civilization.

3. That marriage is therefore to be regarded neither from the point of view of the male nor from that of

the female, but solely from that of the race.

4. The duration of marriage is usually determined by the length of time during which the offspring require the care and protection of both parents in order to properly equip them for the struggle of life.

5. Monogamous marriage, lasting for life, is the highest type as yet evolved, and has survived all other forms and become that adopted by every dominant race, on account of its resulting in the largest number of most efficient offspring.

#### THE HIGHER ANIMALS MOSTLY MONOGAMOUS.

The writer laments that anthropologists and sociologists have overlooked the evolutionary trend toward monogamy in the higher grades of animal life approximate to man. Primitive man did not, as is too often assumed, begin his married life without ages of ancestral experience to guide him. The writer says:

Important as is the part played by polygamy indevelopment of the animal world, it was never practised by any of the species which are generally believed to have come into the line of descent of man and to form a portion of the stem of his family tree. To trace his experimental pedigree rapidly backward, the anthropoid apes are monogamous to a high degree, probably for life; the higher monkeys are also monogamous, also the lemurs, but the relation is of less duration; the insectivora, although occasionally approaching to promiscuity, were never polygamous; the same is true of our rodent-like marsupial ancestors.

### SAVAGES MOSTLY MONOGAMOUS.

This is found to be the case with almost all pure savages. The idea of a primitive promiscuity has been dispelled by the dry light of fact. "It would be safe to say that among savages fully 95 per cent. of all unions are monogamic, and 70 per cent. of these are for life." This is due to the care that must be taken of the children. Far from unlimited license, there is a "well-nigh indecipherable network of restrictions which hedge about the marriage of the savage." Marriage, then, among savages, appears in the form of loose monogamy, lasting at

least during the period of child-bearing, and in the majority of cases for life, since after the wife has ceased to be sexually attractive she is valued as a worker.

Polygamy, like slavery, comes in as a sign and effect of prosperity, but it is either abandoned or it destroys the race that practises it. Dr. Hutchinson makes a strong point when he says:

It may be only a coincidence, but it is true that certain races which have been addicted to neither slavery nor polygamy, like our own Teutonic stocks, are in the van of the world's progress.

## THE VERDICT ON HUMAN MONOGAMY.

Having thus cleared the ground, the writer asks what attitude toward monogamy do the facts of biology warrant? He answers:

One of profoundest respect and confidence. Its sanctions are just as binding upon evolutionary grounds as upon ecclesiastical or legal. Its universal sway to-day over the minds and hearts of men rests not upon the fiat of any petty prince, pope, or godlet, but upon its own inherent superiority over any other form of mating, as sternly proved by the experience of millions of past generations, human and pre-human. The right of one man to choose one woman to love and protect all his life long, of the woman to choose her knight and worshiper, and of both to expect of the other unswerving faithfulness and comradeship until death do them part, is founded upon the life of all the ages.

This sanction, he contends, is both ennobling and altruistic in the highest degree, looking to the welfare, not of the individual, but of the race. "To contract a marriage without giving chief regard to the mental and physical vigor, the sanity and efficiency, of the probable offspring thereof is far more profoundly immoral upon biological grounds than upon religious or legal."

#### BIOLOGY AND LOVE-MATCHES.

Nor do evolutionary ethics fail to favor the higher romance of marriage.

Biology has little hesitation in declaring that as a guide to the probable racial suitability of a mate we have discovered nothing better yet than the sexual instinct, as ennobled and chastened by myriads of generations of monogamy. In other words, marriages should usually be "for love," and very seldom for any other cause. Within reasonable bounds our mating instincts are as much to be trusted as those we possess for food, for air, for water and sunlight. Love-matches result not only in happier homes, but in healthier, brighter, and more beautiful children than unions upon any other basis. Two nations which show by far the largest percentage of unions of this type, and where marital choice is most absolutely free and uncontrolled, America and England, owe no little of their superiority as worldpowers to this fact.

THE WRONG AND THE RIGHT OF DIVORCE.

Passing to questions of divorce, the writer declares that divorce founded on caprice is treason to the organic law of the universe. But where there is epilepsy, insanity, moral perversion, incurable viciousness of temper, habitual drunkenness, criminal conduct of any kind, etc., divorce, he says, should be, not merely obtainable, but obligatory, for the sake of the next generation. Any woman who willingly and knowingly bears a child to a drunken or criminal husband is herself committing a crime againt the race. In answer to what he calls the terrified shrieks that

the prospect of easier divorce arouses in ecclesiastical and other circles, the writer says that even in the most "divorceful" communities in America the proportion of divorce to marriages has never reached a higher point than that of about 12 per cent.

If by a single stroke all marriage ties now in existence were struck off or declared illegal, eight-tenths of all couples would be remarried within forty-eight hours, and seven-tenths could not be kept asunder with bayonets. Eighty per cent. of all marriages are a success from a biologic point of view.

This testimony from a biologist is refreshing.

## THE BARBER SHOP IN SOCIETY.

A FTER outlining the history of barbers and the limitations of their craft, Dr. Isadore Dyer, professor of skin diseases in the medical department of Tulane University, asserts, in the New Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal, that the following facts are well known to every medical man who especially deals with skin diseases:

1. Fully 90 per cent. of baldness owes its origin to the barber shop, directly or indirectly.

2. From 10 to 25 per cent. of the practice of a specialist in skin diseases comes from barber-shop infections and their consequences.

3. The list of skin affections arising from the barber shop includes some of the worst, and among parasitic diseases there are a large number which the usual barber-shop practice may spread.

The author claims that baldness is much more general now than it was a few years back, and that in many cases it is due to infection from the common brush in the barber shop. man carries the infection home," says he, "uses the brush of some other member of his family when his is not convenient; or his brush is employed on the children; even his wife may find his brush better than hers, and so the story goes. It is quite common for the mother to brush the heads of all the children with a common brush. Once established in the household, the disease remains, and it remains until it is destroyed, for even the loss of the weaker hair does not prevent the nesting of the disease in the other hair on the head.

Dandruff, or seborrheic dermatitis, will develop in seventy-two hours on a healthy scalp. Does this mean anything to the man who is shaved by the barber four or five times a week, and who is brushed with a brush used on dozens of heads before him? For the barber is not particular, and his brush is usually only washed days apart, seldom even once a day.

Dr. Dyer states that fully 20 per cent. of the practice of a dermatologist is derived from the barber shops, the diseases transmitted there, in one way or another, being syphilis, ringworm, ordinary pus infections of the face and the neck, "Indian fire" (Impetigo contagiosa), lice, lupus, herpes, etc. In view of the above, the doctor contends that the barber shop in modern society is a menagement are allowed to exist. "Many shops strive toward cleanliness," is the way he puts it, "because their customers have demanded it; but all shops are dirty, some worse than others."

A crusade has been started against the evils of the barber shops, and in some countries legislative action has followed. In a recent paper in the British Medical Journal, Collingridge reviews the status of the question at the time of his writing. There are no regulations in the British colonies. In Germany, four cities, Hamburg, Anhalt, Waldeck, and Dantzic, have restrictions. Lausanne, Vevey, and Rolle, in Switzerland, have laws : Sweden, Turkey, Japan, Bolivia, Salvador, and Uruguay, also. These are named by Dr. Collingridge, who also mentions New York as the only State where the licensed barber must conform to regulations. While Vienna began to legislate rules for barber shops some years back, her action has been followed rather generally in other European countries. In most places regulations are directed at cleanliness, antisepsis, and prevention, and infringement is punishable by fine, sometimes heavy. In Switzerland, barbers with hair or skin diseases are not allowed to carry on their calling.

In 1899, Sweden legislated regarding the prevention of skin diseases transmitted by shaving. In 1901, in Constantinople, regulations were

prorulgated regarding cleanliness in the barber shops. Even Guatemala has taken some action aimed at regulating the barber-shop evils. Collingridge considers the present state of things in London discreditable to a civilized nation, and yet the London barber shops of the better class are far cleaner than those of the same class in the United States.

## "RADIOBES" AND THE ORIGIN OF LIFE.

EXPERIMENTS by which, through the action of radium on sterilized bouillon, "radiobes" have been developed continue to be the subject of comment in the English journals. In the Fortnightly Review for September, Mr. J. Butler Burke, the discoverer of these ra-

diobes, writes on the origin of life. By spontaneous generation, he says, he means the development of what we have a right to think was living from that which we had hitherto a right to think was not. His preface shows that he has scant sympathy with those who are prepared to trace the presence of life back to the atom, or the electron, or the ether. Mr. Burke then describes the experiments which have been blazoned to the world.

WHAT IS THE RADIOBE?

He distinguishes radiobes at once from crystals and from bacteria. He asks, Can they be described as organisms?

He says:

An organism has a structure, a nucleus, and an external boundary or cell-wall, and its vitality may be described as being a continuous process of adjustment between its internal and its external relations.

Of his radiobes he says:

The continuity of structure, assimilation, and growth, and then subdivision, together with the nucleated structure, as shown in a few of the best specimens, suggests that they are entitled to be classed among living things, in the sense in which we use the words, whether we call them bacteria or not.

As they do not possess all the properties of bacteria they are not what are understood by this name, and are obviously altogether outside the beaten track of living things. This, however, will not prevent such bodies from coming under the realm of biology, and, in fact,



J. BUTLER BURKE.

they appear to possess many of the qualities and properties which enable them to be placed in the borderland between crystals and bacteria, organisms in the sense in which we have employed the word, and possibly the missing link between the animate and inanimate.

Thus the gap, apparently insuperable, between the organic and the inorganic world, seems, however rough-

ly, to be bridged over by the presence of these radio-organic organisms which, at least, may give a clue as to the beginning and the end of life, "that vital putrefaction of the dust," to which Dr. Saleeby has recently drawn attention.

IS IT A CLUE TO COSMIC LIFE?

Very diffidently he applies his discovery to the vexed questions as to the origin of all life:

Whether the lowliest forms of life,—so simple that the simplest amoeba as we see it to-day would appear a highly complex form,—whether such elementary types have arisen from inorganic matter by such processes as I have described, I know not. May it not be, however, and does it not seem probable, in the light of these experiments, that the recently dis-

covered processes of instability and decay of inorganic matter, resulting from the unexpected source of energy which gives rise to them, are analogous in many ways to the very inappropriately called "vital force," or really vital energy of living matter? For this idea such physiologists as Johannes Müller so devoutly pleaded more than half a century ago. And may they not also be the source of life upon this planet?

With equal modesty he concludes:

It seems quite beyond hope that even if we had the materials and conditions for producing life in the laboratory, we should be able to produce forms of life as developed as even the simplest amœba, for the one reason, if for no other, that these are the descendants of almost an indefinite series of ancestors. But it is not beyond hope to produce others, more elementary ones, artificially.



# BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Contributions to History.-The October numbers of the American monthlies are notable for the number and range of the historical papers that appear in them. Perhaps the most important of these, from the historian's point of view, is the account, in the Century Magazine, of the Empress Eugenie's flight from Paris, in September, 1870, written by the late Dr. Thomas W. Evans, the American dentist, who escorted the Empress to England, and who gives in this narrative the first authentic statement of the memorable events connected with the hurried departure of the Empress from Paris to her new home at Chiselhurst, in England. Dr. Edward A. Crane, who was himself one of the party who accompanied the Empress to the coast, writes an introduction to this chapter of unpublished history, while the story of how the Empress crossed the Channel in the yacht Gazelle is told by Col. Sir John M. Burgoyne, Bart.-Another paper of no little historical interest in this number of the Century is Gen. Horace Porter's account of "The Recovery of the Body of John Paul Jones." There is appended to General Porter's article a translation of the official certification of the participants and witnesses to the identification of the body.-In McClure's Magazine, Mr. Charles F. Lummis contributes the first of a series of articles on "Pioneer Transportation in America."-Some contemporary evidence in regard to the effect on the public mind of the coup d'état of Louis Napoleon, in December, 1851, is contained in a letter written by Dr. Edward Stimson to his father, Dr. Jeremy Stimson, and now published for the first time in the October number of Scribner's.-In the same magazine, there is another installment of the letters and diaries of George Bancroft, edited by M. A. DeWolf Howe. These letters contain interesting references to the Marquis de Lafayette, Alexander von Humboldt, and other eminent Europeans of the early twenties of the last century .-- A bit of modern history, which we venture to say is quite unfamiliar to most Occidentals, is narrated by Adachi Kinnosuke in an article entitled "How We Lost Saghalien Island," contributed to Appleton's Booklovers Magazine. This article is of peculiar interest, in view of the important part played by Saghalien in the negotiations resulting in the peace of Portsmouth.—In Harper's for October, Prof. John Bassett Moore continues his valuable studies of "American Diplomacy: Its Influences and Tendencies."-Munsey's for October contains articles on "One Thousand Years of American History," by Cyrus Townsend Brady; "The Centenary of Trafalgar," by Fred T. Jane; "The Czars of Russia from Ivan to Nicholas," by Edgar Saltus; and "The Cradle of the Republic," by President Edwin A. Alderman, the last-named paper being concerned with the historic Hampton Roads, the site of the proposed exposition to commemorate the founding of Jamestown.

Politics and Business.—In McClure's Magazine, Miss Ida M. Tarbell describes last winter's campaign in the Kansas Legislature against the Standard Oil Company.—The relations of the Government to the railroads and insurance companies are discussed in the World's Work by Rowland Thomas and Senator John F. Dryden, respectively, the latter writer setting forth his scheme for the federal regulation of insurance.—In Tom Watson's Magazine, Mr. W. G. Joerns gives the concluding installment of his plea for effective rate legislation.—A clear analysis of "The Promise and Problems of Reciprocity" is contributed to Appleton's Booklovers Magazine by Harold Bolee.—In Munsey's, Mr. Herbert N. Casson gives a general survey of the wave of reform in American politics, depicting a few of the personalities which have come to the front as political reformers within the past year or two.

Chapters of Biography.—This month's Century contains several contributions to literary biography. "A Romance of the Nineteenth Century" is the title given to a paper by Richard Watson Gilder which grew out of an inquiry as to the direct references by Robert and Elizabeth Barrett Browning to each other in their poetry.-In the same magazine, the story of Shelley's "ghost" is told by Margaret L. Croft. This is followed by "Unknown Pictures of Shelley," by N. P. Dunn, accompanied by reproductions of West's portraits of Byron and Shelley, the latter of which is here published for the first time.—In the field of contemporary biography, the contributions are naturally more numerous. At least three of these are devoted to President Roosevelt. The President himself tells, in his own simple, direct fashion, in Scribner's for October, the story of one of his Colorado bear hunts last spring; Pastor Charles Wagner, author of "The Simple Life," writes in McClure's of his visit to the White House last year; and in Success there is an account by Louis Viereck of a little-known episode in Mr. Roosevelt's life,-his school days in Germany.-Miss Katharine A. Carl, the American artist who painted the portrait of the Empress-Dowager of China which was exhibited at St. Louis, and the only person from the Western world who has been received into the intimacy of the Chinese imperial palaces, gives in the Century an account of her life with the Empress, whom she saw daily for a year, being present at all the state and religious functions that took place during her residence in the imperial palaces.—The tendency in American magazines to exploit the men who are "doing things" is well illustrated in the October numbers. We have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" from Mr. Lefèvre's sketch of "Paul Morton,—Human Dynamo," in the Cosmopolitan, and Mr. William R. Stewart's description of "The Real John Weaver," in the same magazine, is also worthy of note. "A Day with Thomas F. Ryan" is the title of an interesting though brief article in Success. In the World's Work, Mr. M. G. Cunniff contributes a sketch of "Jerome: A Man." Mr. George Hebard Paine writes in Munsey's on "The New Chief Engineer at Panama," who is also the subject of a sketch by Henry Kitchell Webster in the American Illustrated. In the last-named periodical appear sketches of Henry W. Goode, the president

of the Lewis and Clark Exposition, and of Congressman John J. Esch, of Wisconsin.—Artists are represented in an appreciation of Willard L. Metcalf, by Royal Cortissoz, in *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*, in a paper entitled "My Method of Work," contributed by Marcus Stone, R.A., to the *Grand Magazine*, and in Mr. Caffin's "Story of American Painting" (*American Illustrated Magazine*).

Railroad Topics.—Aside from the discussion of railroad rates and their regulation in the World's Work, other phases of the transportation problem are treated in several of the October magazines. "Millions for Minutes" is the suggestive title of an article by Leroy Scott in the American Illustrated (formerly Leslie's), in which are described the costly preparations necessary to enable the high speed of American railroad trains and the magnificent achievements of our locomotive engineers and other responsible officials connected with the operating service. The same subject is treated in Success by Samuel Merwin.—Representative John J. Esch, of Wisconsin, contributes to the American Illustrated a statement of reasons for the passage of the federal bill for the compulsory in-

stallation of the block system on all railroads. This magazine has published a great number of articles in its recent issues advocating this measure in the interest of public safety.

Travel Notes.-When the United States troops occupied Porto Rico, the natives had but one answer to every question,-"No spika de Englis'." The soldiers, quick to invent nicknames, at once dubbed the Porto Ricans "Spikadees," and since that time the Americans living on the island have made constant use of the word. It is now used adjectively, and Mr. Alden Arthur Knipe, writing in Appleton's Booklovers for October on the manners and customs of the people, gives his article the title, "In Spikadee Land."-Dwight L. Elmendorf describes in Scribner's certain "Shrines of the Desert," presenting a number of striking photographs taken in the Sahara.-Henry W. Nevinson makes somes revelations in Harper's of the slave trade actually conducted at the present time on the west coast of Africa. The fact that the system goes under the name of "contracted labor" is of little consequence. Practically all of the labor in Angola is performed by men and women who are bought and sold as chattels.

## THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Renan "The Master Sophist of His Age."—Mr. Edward Wright, in the Fortnightly Review (London), studies Renan's character as revealed in his letters. He speaks of his irresolution, and describes him as the master sophist of his age. His sentimental infidelity, or piety without faith, rehabilitated in France the spirit of rationalism. He substituted esthetics for morality, and what attracted him in men of the highest morality was their exquisite refinement of soul. "Indecisive by nature, he made this indecision an artistic quality."

Public Opinion in the Nineteenth Century.-Mr. Harold Spender, writing in the Contemporary Review (London), finds in Professor Dicey's new book on law and opinion in England "an illuminating hypothesis marking a new stage in research," his conclusion, namely, that "English public opinion is always ultimately supreme over English law." Mr. Spender then examines the professor's three great periods of opinion in the nineteenth century: "The Period of Old Toryism or Legislative Quiescence (1800-30). The Period of Benthamism or Individualism (1825-70). The Period of Collectivism (1865-1900)." Mr. Spender suggests that the individualistic and collective ideals of the nineteenth century may yet unite in a new and larger conception of human activity, or that these two essential forms of humanity will always vary with the varying history of man.

What Evolution Teaches for the Individual.—Mr. J. Lionel Tayler, writing in the Westminster Review (London) on aspects of individual evolution, lays down as a postulate of evolution that healthy life is bound up with individual life-aim and individual realization, and demands as its first law the study of the individual and the preservation of individuality. In every school, workshop, and public hall he would inscribe what he calls Nature's teaching,—namely: "Live out your life in its fullness and in its strength, but live

so that high is high and low is low. Guard your lifeideals above all else that this world holds worthy. Sell not yourself, for this is prostitution. Sell not yourself, and sell not others."

French Foreign Policy.-The principal paper in the September number of the National Review (London) is one by M. Jules Delafosse on the foreign policy of France. The writer is a Conservative Deputy, but the purport of his article is a defense of M. Delcassé. He points out that in respect of officially communicating the terms of the Anglo-French agreement Germany was treated on exactly the same footing as other powers. The real root of bitterness was the Kaiser's resentment of a good understanding between England and France, which shattered his dream of a Russo-Franco-German alliance against England. The Moroccan affair was trumped up to jockey France into some such alliance. M. Delafosse, however, insists that "the wound" of Alsace-Lorraine "still bleeds," and points out that German industry threatens French "with triumphant competition." And, he urges, "behind the Germany of today stands the Germany of to-morrow,-the greater Germany of the Pan-Germans," which is to include a population of eighty millions and to be possessed with "a world-wide ambition." Therefore, he is entirely opposed to any thought of coquetting with Germany. He is enamored of a vaster combination than the Kaiser has worked for,-"an Anglo-Franco-Russian alliance, which, in all probability, Italy, and possibly the United States, might be willing to join." These allies would, he predicts, possess "the mastery of the world;" "disturbance of peace against their wishes in any part of the world would be physically impossible."

Canada and Mr. Chamberlain.—Mr. John S. Ewart sets forth quite ruthlessly, in the Monthly Review (London), Canada's attitude to Mr. Chamberlain's proposals. He lays down at the outset these four proposals: "1. Mr. Chamberlain advocates the establish-

ment of a protective tariff. To this Canada says nothing. 2. Mr. Chamberlain proposes preferential tariffs within the empire. Canada is almost unanimously in favor of such tariffs. 3. Mr. Chamberlain desires commercial union of the empire. Canada does not. 4. Mr. Chamberlain urges political union of the empire. Canada dissents."

An Appeal for the British Sunday.-Lord Avebury calls attention, in the Nineteenth Century (London), to the recent increase in Sunday trading, and to the almost unanimous support which the great shopkeepers' associations have extended to his Sunday-closing shops bill. He will not take its defeat in the Peers as final. His conclusion deserves to be pondered: "One day's rest in seven, rest for the body and rest for the mind, has from time immemorial been found of supreme importance from the point of view of health. But rest of the spirit is even more necessary. Philosophers, theologians, and men of business in all ages have agreed that every man ought to be set free on one day in the week to study, to pray, and to think; to examine his own life, his conduct, and his opinions; to lift his mind and thoughts from the labors and cares, from the petty but harassing worries and troubles of every-day life, and of this splendid but complex and mysterious world, and to raise them to the calmer and nobler, the higher and purer, regions of heaven above."

Need France and Germany Be Enemies?-A writer in the Fortnightly Review (London), concealing his identity behind three asterisks, endeavors to stir up bad blood between France and Germany by his "reflections on the anniversary of Sedan." He says that the Franco-German relations are truly described by Professor Treitschke as "a latent state of war." He maintains that this latent state of war is likely to continue until France has regained her natural frontier, by which he means the river Rhine, or until she has become a third-class power, a second Belgium. Why the writer should select the present of all times to asseverate that the age-long purpose of France has been to secure the Rhine frontier is left to conjecture. The writer even asserts that from the French point of view the possession of the Rhine is indispensable for the security of the country. He advises France to strengthen her naval forces as soon as possible, if she would not be outstripped by Germany.

The Problem of British Canals.-Mr. George Turnbull, discussing, in the World's Work and Play (London), "What Is to Be Done with Our Canals?" says that once English canals were looked upon as the best in the world. Now those of France, Germany, Belgium, and even the United States and Canada, are altogether superior, England standing nowhere in comparison. In England, the railway has killed the canal, chiefly, it seems, because the great companies bought up the canals. "There are in Great Britain about 3,938 miles of canals, of which 1,264 are under railway control, and 415 are derelict or abandoned. Only about 230 miles are capable of admitting boats carrying over 90 tons, about 2,000 miles will accommodate boats carrying 40 to 60 tons, while the remainder is fit only for tiny barges carrying up to 30 tons. On the waterways of the Continent, however, barges of 250 to 500 tons' capacity, and even larger ones, are used-and it takes as many men to look after a small barge as a large one." French

canals are state-owned, those of Germany and Belgium mainly so; but, whereas England has spent next to nothing on hers, they have not spared money on theirs. Mr. Turnbull rehearses the oft-told tale of the expensiveness of England's carriage of goods as compared with that in Germany and France; but concludes that at last the canal question is in a fair way of being tackled, probably first of all by a royal commission. On the whole, he thinks, the general feeling of experts was voiced by a resolution of the Associated Chambers of Commerce-improving and extending the canal system by means of a public trust, if necessary in combination with local or district trusts, and aided by a government guarantee. Mr. J. L. C. Booth follows up Mr. Turnbull's article by a paper describing the condition of the waterways from London to Liverpool, a journey which he did by motor launch.

A Sociological View of Taxation.—Mr. Walter Howgrave, writing in the Westminster Review (London), develops a principle which he thus states at the end: "Society, like every less complex organism, must assure itself of a sufficient provision for bodily sustenance to enable all its parts or members to become developed to a high standard of efficiency. This purpose can be accomplished through its government, the regulating organ, only by taxing the surplus energy of the whole body. Each member, being in itself a productive agent, must be fully nourished; to this end the outcome, or revenue, derived from the energy thus taxed must be scientifically distributed by the regulating organ according to the requirements of the separate members. From the sociological point of view, this seems to be the elementary principle that should govern scientific taxation."

Social Effect of Irish Cooperation.—Mr. J. Dorum describes, in the Westminster Review (London), the progress of cooperation in Irish agriculture. He says the new rural societies have, apart from their economic success, proved to be a happy field for the mutual understanding and the reconciliation of the different classes of society. A good number of well-selected libraries for the satisfaction of new rural aspirations have come into existence. To a great extent a truce between Protestants and Roman Catholics has been arrived at. The social gatherings taking place in connection with the associations have become a channel for uniting Unionists and Nationalists, landowners and tenants, rich and poor.

Henry George Anticipated Two Hundred and Fifty Years Ago .- Mr. L. H. Berens revives with ostentatious satisfaction, in the Westminster Review (London), the teachings of Gerrard Winstanley, a social reformer of the days of the Commonwealth, one of the "levelers," or "diggers." One excerpt from a pamphlet of this early land-nationalizer may be given, which asserts: "That we may work in righteousness, and lay the Foundation of making the Earth a Common Treasury for All, both Rich and Poor, That every one that is born in the Land may be fed by the Earth his Mother that brought him forth, according to the Reason that rules in the Creation. Not inclosing any part into any particular hand, but all as one man working together and feeding together as Sons of one Father, members of one Family; not one lording over another, but all looking upon each other as equals in the Creation."

How England Rules Egypt.-England's remarkable success in the government of Egypt is reviewed in the Nation (Berlin) by Mr. M. Philippson. England does not show the haughty air of the French against the conquered Mohammedans, the writer says. "The common man in Egypt, and also the stranger, does not at all perceive that the real power belongs to England, and not to the natives. The sovereign is said to be the Khedive, commonly called Effendia, and all public acts are proclaimed in his name. The seats in the ministerium, the officials, the police, the army, are Egyptian, and the language of legislation and of the administration of the army is Arabic. The great mass of the people ascribe the betterment of the conditions to the viceroy, to whom they are very thankful for it. The English thus renounce the shadow of the power and are satisfied with the real possession of it. It is the English ambassador, Viscount Cromer,-formerly Sir Evelyn Baring, -who holds the reins of the government. He is the real lord of the country. The army is Egyptian, but the higher officers, though placed in the service of the Khedive and carrying his uniform and titles, are English, and do only obey their English Sirdar or general. There are only a few thousand English soldiers garrisoned in Alexandria and Cairo. At the head of the police and fire departments are also Englishmen in Egyptian disguise. Great Britain is content in possessing the gateway to the Indies. The nominal lord of the country, the Khedive, has ruled since 1892, but is really only a dummy of the English. Nevertheless, Effendia seems quite satisfied with his position, and enriches himself on real estate and horse speculations." The impartial observer is indeed compelled to admit that the English rule has accomplished more and produced better results in Egypt than that of any other European power would have done. Instead of ten and one-half million Egyptian pounds (1 Egyptian pound-five dollars) in 1888, the exports amounted, in 1900, to sixteen and three-quarters million pounds. During the same time, the imports increased from seven and three-quarters to fourteen and three-eighths million pounds. The public revenues rose from £8,850,000 in 1882 to £11,663,-000 in 1898. The national debts are somewhat lessened, but are still more than one hundred million Egyptian pounds They constitute no longer any danger to the nation, as the interest has fallen from 8 per cent. to 31/2 per cent. The prosperity of the country can also be seen in the fact that the value of real estate has been fourfolded in the course of twenty years. This has brought a fortune to many an enterpriser. Yet the Englishmen themselves have wisely avoided the temptation to enrich themselves on the land, leaving a wideopen door for all nations to come in.

What Will Norway's Future Be?—In the Revue des Deux Mondes, Charles Benoist deals with the secession of Norway, and summarizes the story of the struggle. In conclusion, he asks: If Norway fail to find a king, will she institute a republic? And what will be her attitude to Sweden? Will an alliance replace the union, or will rivalry end in hostility? If an alliance be the result, will it include Norway and Sweden only, or will Deumark also be admitted? In the event of an alliance, what will she do with the three kingdoms and the different nationalities? All unions of states, the writer philosophizes, are very dificult to realize. They are often born in blood, they last but a short time, and they end badly. The Austro-

Hungarian monarchy, for instance, is not in a particularly excellent state of health, and the union of Sweden and Norway was so sick that it died. A union in which the sovereignty is equally divided, in which both parties are equally strong, would be, if politics were geometry, the squaring of the circle.

Unity of Origin of Languages.-Alfredo Trombetti, the linguistic genius of humble origin who has been given some attention by the American press, has published a book, "The Unity of Origin of Language," which serves as a sort of introduction to his future great work, "Genealogical Links Among the Languages of the Ancient World," and gives some of his conclusions from one of the most exhaustive comparisons of languages ever made. These are stated in a review of the book in the Nuova Antologia (Rome). His study was first directed to discovering whether or not there were links between the Semitic and Indo-European languages, however remote. Since the Hamitic languages had been believed akin to the Semitic, he studied, as representative of the former, the Egypto-Coptic, which he decided to be really Semitic. From the two branches of the Hamitic, the Berber and the Cushitic, he passed gradually to the Bantu, and perceived that unless he should relinquish precious elements of comparison he must confront the Indo-European tongues, not solely with Semitic, nor with Hamito-Semitic, but with all the languages of Africa considered as a single group of relatively high rank. Investigating as to what other group the Indo-European was most akin, Professor Trombetti found it to be the Uralic, or Hungarian-Finnic, but this could not be separated from the great Ural-Altaic stem. From this he passed to the languages of the extreme Orient, the Indo-Chinese and "Mon-Khmer." He, as he says himself, "resolutely confronted the problem in all its extent, or almost; since, having had to explore such vast fields, and which in part represented a terra incognita for comparative glossology, I undertook to do as much for the immense and until now little-explored field of America." The latter study he has since made, and it only confirms him in his conclusions. Professor Trombetti, then, reduces the linguistic groups to Africa-south, Bantu; north, Hamito-Semitic; Eurasia, Caucasian; Indo-European, Uralo-Altaic, Dravidic, Indo-Chinese, and Mon-Khmer; Oceania, Malay-Polynesian and Andamanese-Papuan-Australian. This investigation throws light on a question outside of linguistics,-the antiquity of man upon the earth,-since the time required for certain modifications of speech can be approximately figured, and the higher the order of an organism, the more restricted the area of its habitat. Professor Trombetti thus argues that the precursor of man resided in a limited area in which the final transformation took place. The antiquity of language cannot exceed a certain maximum number of years, or the number of linguistic groups would be larger and their divergence greater. This maximum the professor sets at from thirty thousand to fifty thousand years. If the biologic principle that a species originated where it is found most perfected be true, some point in Eurasia must be taken as the original home of man, and the farther one goes from this, the more degraded are men, as the Hottentots, the Bushmen, the Tierra del Fuegans, the Tasmanians, who speak languages fairly well developed, and the theory is that they have degenerated from unfavorable environment.

Woman's Obedient Life in Japan.-Naomi Tamura, in the Revue de Paris, gives a picture of "Women's Life in Japan." The author, after having passed several years in America, returned to Japan and published a book in 1893, but the protests of the press compelled him to leave his post as pastor. His ideas had become Americanized, and he judged his country in anything but an impartial spirit. It is not a charming picture that we get. The writer says that Japanese virtue is very pharisaical, very external. Love-marriages do not exist in Japan, and when young married people chance to get on together they are congratulated on their happiness. The idea of race is the principle on which marriage rests in Japan. A youth is expected to marry at the age of eighteen and follow the profession of his father. Girls are brought up to consider themselves as inferior to boys, and the woman's position is certainly not a desirable one. Filial love, as we understand it, is not known; the Japanese honor and respect their parents. Obedience is the chief domestic virtue. For a woman there are three kinds of obedience. When she is young, she must obey her father; married, she must obey her husband; and when she is a widow, she has to obey her eldest son.

Italian Municipal Bakeries. - Reference has been made in previous numbers of this REVIEW to the experiments in municipal baking in Italy. In the two August numbers of the Riforma Sociale (Rome Turin), Prof. F. G. Tenerelli, of the Royal University of Catania, analyzes the whole question, chiefly on the data furnished by Catania and Palermo, taking into account every subsidiary circumstance. He concludes that every municipalization should be studied with respect to its particular local conditions. In Catania, a municipal monopoly was set up, all bakers being expropriated and indemnified. There, the writer says, "The monopolistic régime instituted and exercised by the socialistic party in power has resulted in economic and political damage to the commune, to almost all the taxpayers, and to the great majority of the consumers. The damages have been diminished by the effect of the cooperative bread company, which has drawn the baking from its original exclusively monopolistic character and has, in a measure, tended toward a régime of competition. It is likewise proved,-(1) that the present conditions in Sicily are not favorable to the good administration of public affairs, and hence for the development of municipal industrialism; (2) that the exercise of power, and hence the management of a municipal enterprise, can easily transform itself, given the conditions, into an efficacious means by which the political party in power may carry out a class policy to the advantage of a few active ones and the detriment of the numerous unorganized and inert; (3) that the only case in which the municipalization of baking, in a populous and scattered city of the kind and conditions of Catania or Palermo, can with any probability result in advantage to the commune, to the taxpayers, and to the consumers is that of a municipal bakery (with mill) operated in competition with private mills and ovens. The only other feasible plan the professor considers to be to let private enterprise take its course, limiting the action of the commune to a rigorous hygienic surveillance.

Alcoholism in Rural France.—A study of alcoholism in the country districts of France appears in the Revue Socialiste (Paris). The writer, M. Bouhey-Al-

lex, declares that, contrary to the general belief, alcoholism is not confined to the urban districts of France, but is a terrible ravage in the country sections. The most persistent optimism, he says, cannot blind our eyes to the terrible danger from this curse. In the small towns throughout the center of the republic, he declares, the number of widows is large and increasing, and their condition is due, in a remarkably high degree, to the alcoholism which has carried off their natural protectors. The men of innumerable French country communes die a decade before their time, from drink. In all these villages, he declares, the number of women is much larger than the number of men, and this is having adverse and permanent effect upon the size and character of the population. It has also made the men incapable of discharging their civic duties. "Esau sold his birthright for a mess of pottage; the French drinker gives up the rights of man and of citizenship in return for his two fingers of absinthe and his glasses of beer." The Socialist party, concludes M. Bouhey-Allex, is awakening to the danger, and realizes its great interest in the work of reclaiming the working class and impressing upon it, as the first of its duties, the duty as well as the right to keep sober.

European Militia.—An anonymous writer in the Correspondant has a paper on "The Truth About the Militia." It is a study of the militia in Switzerland, based on an unpublished report about the Swiss military maneuvers. The writer compares the Swiss military with the French, to the detriment of the latter. The French, he says, dislike discipline. The Swiss, on the other hand, have the feeling for discipline inborn. The Swiss army is not merely a material military force,—it constitutes a moral military force. France must be a moral force and something more; the exigencies of modern war require her to be an effective military force. The two years' service system does not find favor with the writer.

The National Movement in Danish Prussia.-A study of the peasant proprietors of small farms in Denmark, by Jörgen Hoff, appears in the Kringsjaa, of Christiania. The farm, this writer points out, is the principal economic factor in Danish life. It is for this reason that the attempted "Prussification" of the agricultural districts since the absorption of Schleswig by Germany has been so injurious to Danish national life. The Danish farmers, however, have fought the Prussification campaign, and now see some measure of success. The small peasant farmers in Schleswig recently organized an association for the protection and exploitation of their butter business. In 1904 they exportedchiefly to England-about one hundred and eighty million pounds of butter. They also exported twenty-three million dollars' worth of spirits, and more than thirty million eggs.

Municipal Reforms in Tokio.—The Chokugen (Plain Speaker), the organ of the Japanese Socialists, published every Sunday in Tokio, has an article on the street-railway problems of the Japanese capital in which it says: "There are three private companies of street railway in Tokio, making competition with one another in their prolongation of new lines. The fare is three sen uniform on the lines of each company. But the passengers are compelled to pay, according to the cases, twice or thrice of the uniform fare, for they must trav-

erse two or three companies' lines to make a little long journey. The home minister is now persuading the companies to adjust and unify the lines between them, and suggesting that they amalgamate themselves to one company, if possible. The citizens are wishing at least to have the uniform fare all common between the three companies. And we, the Socialists, are insisting upon the municipalization of all the street railways, but in vain." It was necessary, in connection with this problem, the Chokugen continues, to remove all the slums to the suburbs of the city. "If the railway lines are prolonged regularly, they say, the laborers and poor people may live in the suburbs and attend to the factories and offices from there, taking advantage of special commutation fare. The municipality then will build tenement-houses for the poor, with two or three small rooms, in the suburbs, taking great care in ventilation and construction, and rent them at a moderate rent. Private building of these tenements may be also allowed if conditions are according to the regulations. These plans are mainly caused from the sanitary necessity to destroy the pest and other plagues, which always germinate in the slum quarters."

How We Americanize Immigrants,-M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, who last year lectured in many American cities, gave some impressions of this country at a joint meeting of the Social Economy Society and the Union of Social Peace at Paris, which were published in the Riforma Sociale (Rome), and are just reproduced in the Rassegna Nazionale (Florence). He called special attention to the perpetual pioneer spirit existent in America. "The national character is formed about a domestic tradition that always begins with a pioneer. The extension of territory, the fertility of a virgin soil, the richness of the subsoil, have certainly aided to form it, but the principal cause consists in America's being a country of colonists weaned of prejudices and uncompromised with the past. From a sincere cult of liberty springs an essentially democratic education, that guarantees in every respect the expression of individuality. Now, if it be considered that in this country sacred to liberty the hardy and adventurous spirit of the first immigrants passes from one generation to another, it is easy to understand how from such elements should spring such a rapid economic, industrial, and political development." The lecturer refers to the deterioration in the quality of the raw material, from Puritans to Polacks and from Quakers to Calabrians, but notes that no coercive measures are taken to metamorphose even these refractory elements. "The transformation of the immigrants must be the effect of moral causes, and among these are to be noted the religious sects, principally the Catholic Church, which has never tolerated, even at the cost of schisms, as has happened in the case of Ruthenians and Poles, that the immigrants should have bishops of their own nationality. The Americans purpose that benefits, and not fear, shall draw the immigrants to the new state. In their conception, national unity does not consist in

a religious credo, imposed by force on all, but in public utility in harmony with the traditions of the nation, and in the conviction that in no other country are the rights of man so guaranteed as in the United States. For this reason, the immigrants divest themselves promptly of the old nationalities, which ordinarily remind them of a period of suffering, and take on the customs and imbibe the principles of America. As a recent country, America has not our religious, political, and social, or even ethnic, prejudices, perhaps because she herself is, to a certain extent, the product of crossing of races. Thus, while turning no hostile face to any novelty, the Americans have a prejudice that condemns as a whole what is old, simply because it is old." Referring to the part the schools play in Americanization, M. Leroy-Beaulieu notes that we neglect no means to produce effect, even those called puerile by some, such as causing pupils to "render homage every day, with a set ceremony, to the starry banner, symbol of the glorious American people, and every day the Declaration of Jndependence is not only read, but commented upon."

Compulsory Education in India.—In East and West, Mr. Hargovind D. Kantavala tells how, as director of vernacular instruction, he introduced, by order of the Maharajah Gaekwar, compulsory education for both sexes into certain districts of Baroda. He states the result thus: "I was able to introduce compulsory education in the most backward part of the Baroda state within a very short time; but I had to pay special attention for months in order to work out the scheme successfully. By the end of the year, almost all children within the age of compulsion,-i.e., over 99 per cent.,-entered school, a result which even in England and other advanced countries is not achieved. The successful working of the measure induced his highness to extend compulsory education by taking up a fresh group of ten villages at a time. Compulsory education in the Amreli Taluka has stood the test of more than a dozen years, showing always that nearly cent, per cent. of the children attend school, and that people have never raised any complaint of a serious nature against it. His highness has recently sanctioned a scheme for applying in all parts of his territories the law of compulsory education to those children whose parents have a certain annual income." He concludes by saying that, from his long experience as an educationist, compulsory education is practicable in India if the requisite funds are available and if the measure is carried out with consideration, caution, and tact. The people of India are generally loyal, obedient, and law-abiding. The amount of cost is reckoned at the rate of four rupees per child per annum for rural districts; for cities, about 50 per cent. more. The city of Bombay would require from six to eight lakhs of rupees. For the whole of British India, the cost would be about 10 per cent. of the state revenue. The need of some such step is shown by the fact that in the census of 1901 it was found that only one in ten of the male, and only seven in a thousand of the female, population were literate.

# THE NEW BOOKS.

## NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

#### HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

THE third volume of Mr. Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England" (Macmillan) covers the period of Gladstone's ministerial triumphs and of Disraeli's vigorous leadership of the opposition,—the years 1865-76. To this period are assigned some of the great landmarks of English Liberal legislation,—the disestablishment of the Irish Church, army reform, the secret ballot, public education, the settlement of the Alabama claims, and other great measures. Mr. Paul gives a thoroughly readable review of this important period. His estimates of character have been seriously criticised in England, while other features of his work seem to have met with general approbation. On the whole, it is an invaluable political history of the past sixty years. It will be completed in five volumes.

Mr. P. P. Iverslee has written an historical summary of "The Events Leading to the Separation of Norway and Denmark" (from 1801 to 1814) which is really an exposition and justification of Norwegian politics during the century just passed. The work is published by the Augsburg Publishing House, of Minneapolis.

With the aim of setting forth the character of Napoleon in a more favorable light than it is usually regarded in, Mr. Oscar Browning has written "Napoleon the First Phase" (John Lane), which is a study of the boyhood and youth of the great soldier-statesman from 1769 to 1793. The volume is illustrated with portraits.

The latest issue of the series entitled "The World's Epoch Makers" treats of Socrates (Scribners), and is by the Rev. J. T. Forbes.

A monumental work recently published by the C. A. Nichols Company (Springfield, Mass.) is "Seventy Centuries of the Life of Mankind," a work in two volumes, appropriately illustrated, and best described by the legend on its title page: "A survey of history from the earliest known records through all stages of civilization, in all important countries, down to the present time, with an introductory account of prehistoric peoples, and with character sketches of the chief personages of each historic epoch, by J. N. Larned, editor of 'History for Ready Reference,' and author of 'A History of the United States for Secondary Schools,' 'A History of England for Schools,' etc. Illustrated by about one hundred and fifty reproductions of famous historical paintings and portraits in black and white, and colors."

"The Honorable Peter White," by Ralph D. Williams (Cleveland: Penton Publishing Company), is not a novel; neither is it, strictly speaking, a biography, but it contains the elements of a story quite as interesting as one usually finds in the modern American novel, combined with the materials requisite for a biographical sketch of unusual force and interest. The Honorable Peter White himself, as no resident of the upper peninsula of Michigan needs to be told, is a real person. He began, sixty years ago, as a humble worker in the Lake Superior iron industry, and to-day he is perhaps the foremost citizen of that region. This immense industry has been developed wholly within the

span of a single life. Mr. Williams has incorporated in his book a sketch of that development, which is greatly assisted by sidelights from the careers of pioneers among the miners and navigators of the Great Lakes. Much of this material is now made accessible to the general reader for the first time. From first to last, it is a story of thrilling interest.

In "A Study of John D. Rockefeller," Mr. Marcus M. Brown, a neighbor and friend of the great oil-refiner and philanthropist, summarizes a defense of Mr. Rockefeller from the attacks recently made upon him in the press. He includes statements of attorneys and others in defense of Mr. Rockefeller's conduct in specific cases, and concludes with a plea for justice to the man of whom it is said that with his name left out the history of education and religion could not be written.

Edward Fitz Gerald, the English poet who won fame as the translator of a great Persian poem, the "Rubáiyat" of Omar Khayyám, is the subject of several quite elaborate biographies, while two or three separate editions of his letters have appeared within a few years. These publications are now supplemented by a brief sketch of Fitz Gerald which Mr. A. C. Benson contributes to the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan). Quiet and uneventful as Fitz Gerald's life was, his personality has always exerted a curious fascination on other literary men. Mr. Benson sets forth very clearly and succinctly the noteworthy facts in a career that was decidedly lacking in the spectacular, whatever may be said of its deeper notes.

At last there has been written a "Life of St. Patrick." This volume, which considers the place in history of the famous Irishman—who, by the way, was an Englishman, born under the Roman dominion—is by Dr. J. B. Bury, regius professor of modern history at Cambridge. It is published by the Macmillans. His conclusions, he tells us, "tend to show that the Roman Catholic conception of St. Patrick's work is, generally, nearer to historical fact than the views of some anti-Papal divines." There is a voluminous appendix to this volume, consisting of notes, explanations, and supporting quotations.

Three recent additions to the "Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Scientists," by Elbert Hubbard, are "Haeckel," "Linnæus," and "Huxley." These are issued in paper covers, but the typography is delightful, and each is accompanied by a portrait of the scientist considered.

#### SOCIAL AND POLITICAL TREATISES.

Prof. Frederick A. Cleveland, of the New York University, has written "The Bank and the Treasury" (Longmans),—an exposition of the principles on which our currency system is founded, with special reference to the problem of "elasticity" of current credit-funds. Professor Cleveland was already widely known as the author of "Funds and Their Uses," the first book on the list recommended by the American Bank Clerks' Association. He has given special attention to financial and currency questions for many years.

Jack London's "War of the Classes" (Macmillan) is a Socialist's frank comment on the social phenomena of the day. We may or may not accept Mr. London's definition of a "scab" as "one who gives more value for the same price than another," but his demonstration that nearly everybody is at times a "scab" is at least interesting, and rather flattering to our national sense of superior efficiency. We lack the space to point out the various details of premise and conclusion in respect to which the orthodox economist will differ with Mr. London; but every one who is at all interested in social problems would do well to peruse his breezy and piquant essays and judge for himself as to the weight and accuracy of his statements and the validity of his reasoning.

Dr. William F. Willoughby, treasurer of Porto Rico, contributes to the "American State" series (Century) a study of the "Territories and Dependencies of the United States: Their Government and Administration." This volume is concerned with the actual policy pursued and the action taken by the United States in relation to its dependent territories. Like the other volumes in the same series, it is largely descriptive in character. The author has made no attempt to discuss colonial problems as such, but frequently calls attention to the existence of such problems, and indicates the main considerations involved.

Prof. A. V. Dicey's new book on "Law and Public Opinion in England" (Macmillan) contains the lectures delivered by him at the Harvard Law School in 1898, and since delivered at Oxford. In these lectures Professor Dicey attempts to follow out the connection or relation between a century of English legislation and successive currents of opinion. The lectures take up facts in political, social, and legal history and deduce from them conclusions which, though obvious enough, may be easily overlooked by the superficial student of

political science.

The second volume of Prof. William A. Dunning's "History of Political Theories" (Macmillan) carries forward to the middle of the eighteenth century the work begun in the former volume, which was confined to ancient and medieval history. The sub-title of the present volume, "From Luther to Montesquieu," clearly defines the period. Beginning with the Reformation, Professor Dunning traces the history of anti-monarchic doctrines of the sixteenth century, the work of the Catholic controversialists and jurists, the law of nations as developed by Hugo Grotius, English political philosophy before and during the Puritan revolution, Continental theory during the age of Louis XIV., and, finally, the epoch-marking work of Montesquieu himself.

A translation of Levasseur's "Elements of Political Economy," by Theodore Marburg (Macmillan), has recently appeared. It is stated that portions of the treatise were rewritten by the author for the translator, while other additions and changes made by the translator himself were approved by the author. This work is regarded as valuable chiefly for its sound and well-balanced statements of economic truths, and for its clear discrimination in dealing with new theories.

#### BOOKS OF DESCRIPTION AND STATISTICS.

A new edition of Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace's "Russia," enlarged and revised, has been issued by Holt. The first edition of this work appeared in 1877, and was the result of Sir Donald's studies during a residence of six or seven years in the Russian Empire.

Since that time he has visited Russia several times and spent many months in her Central Asian provinces. His observations and studies of Russia and Russian conditions extend over a period of more than thirty-five years. This present edition is really a new work, thoroughly revised, and in great part rewritten. Five new chapters deal with the revolutionary movement, industrial progress, and the present situation,-meaning up to June 1 of the present year. Mr. Wallace has an admirable style, and his work is one of those authoritative, illuminating ones which the general reader, as well as the student, cannot afford to be without. During the past twenty-five years, he declares, there have been only two strong men in Russia, representing almost radically opposed methods of thought,-Plehve and Witte. The work is a large and exhaustive one. It is regarded by many Russians as the best work about their country ever written by a foreigner.

Mr. Alexander Ular (which, by the way, is the nom de plume of a very clever French writer on politics and economics, whose real name has not yet been revealed) has written a fascinating study of "Russia from Within," which has been translated and published in the United States by Henry Holt. This writer believes that the Russian revolution has actually begun, and this book, he hopes, will serve as "a sweeping of the ground" for the intelligent reader of the signs of the times. He attempts no prophecy as to the result of the present crisis. The picture he paints is a gloomy one, and a very desperate case is made out for what the writer calls "contemporary Czardom." The headings of the four chapters which make up the book will give an idea of its contents,-"The Dynasty and the Court," "The Advent of the Bureaucracy," "Witte's Régime,"

and "The National Awakening."

"Chinese Life in Town and Country," by Emile Bard (of course, a translation and adaptation), is the latest issue of the series "Our Asiatic Neighbors," which Mr. William Harbutt Dawson is editing for the Putnams. The translation and adaptation is by Mr. H. Twitchell, and there are a number of photographic reproductions

by way of illustration.

A thorough study of the legal and commercial relations of China and the Chinese people with the rest of the world, and an analysis of the legal and commercial aspects of life in the Celestial Empire, is presented by Mr. T. R. Jernigan in a scholarly volume entitled "China in Law and Commerce" (Macmillan). Mr. Jernigan has been for years a resident of Shanghai, and has studied China's life and customs from perhaps unusually favorable points of vantage. There are chapters on the physical features; the government; law; the courts; the guilds; business customs; banks; weights, measures, and currency; and transit by land and water.

"The Lands of the Eastern Caliphate" is the last issue of the Cambridge Geographical Series which Dr. F. H. H. Guillmand is editing. This volume, which is by Gaston Le Strange, treats of Mesopotamia, Persia, and Central Asia. It is issued by the Cambridge University Press, in England, and imported by the Macmillans. Several detailed maps complete the volume.

A worthy tribute to his alma mater is Mr. John Rogers Williams' "Handbook of Princeton" (The Grafton Press). Mr. Williams, who is the present editor of the Princeton Historical Association, is, of course, saturated with the importance and traditions of his subject, and has compiled a very readable manual, which is appropriately illustrated, and which has a

sympathetic introduction by Dr. Woodrow Wilson,

president of the university.

Mr. Horace S. Hudson's "Dictionary of Minneapolis and Vicinity" (Minneapolis: Hudson Publishing Company) is a model guide-book of its kind. Other cities would do well to profit by the example so well set by Mr. Hudson's publication. The facts about the city of Minneapolis which strangers most care to know, as well as those which are always useful in a handbook for the residents of the city, are collected in this little work under an alphabetical arrangement, thus affording a descriptive index to the buildings, institutions, parks, streets, churches, resorts, amusements, and commercial enterprises of the city.

Mr. Louis P. McCarthy's "Statistician and Economist" (San Francisco: published by the compiler), a biennial publication, has been issued for the current year. We have had occasion to refer to this excellent handbook in years past. It is an excellent compilation of authoritative political, commercial, and industrial

statistics

A valuable "Statistical Year-Book of Canada" (Ottawa: Department of Agriculture) has reached its twentieth year of issue. It contains much important data relating to Canadian agriculture, trade, and commerce.

#### ESSAYS AND LITERATURE.

Edward H. Cooper, the English novelist, is responsible for an entertaining book of essays and sketches entitled "The Twentieth Century Child" (John Lane). This writer maintains, along with other original propositions, that under modern conditions the mother is not the proper person to have charge of the bringing up of the child. His demand, then, is for a new calling, or profession,—"the deputy mother," a guardian with plenary powers. Mr. Cooper has included in his book an autobiography written by an eleven-year-old English girl and several original tales by other children of about that age. The volume as a whole is a clever and unusual combination of anecdote, fiction, biography, and serious discussion.

Mr. Richard Le Gallienne has rendered into English blank-verse a number of the "Odes from the Divan of Hafiz" (L. C. Page). His renderings, which are in his own musical English style, have been made on the basis of two literal English translations of the Persian poet by Col. Wilberforce Clarke and Mr. John Payne. The term divan, it will be remembered, in Persian is used in much the same way as in English we employ the words garland or treasury. The difference between Oriental and Occidental poetry is plainly evident in these odes, in which one can see the distinction which Mr. Le Gallienne puts thus: "Where we seek a thread of meaning, the Persian demands only a thread of meter."

"In Bohemia" (H. M. Caldwell Company), by James Clarence Harvey, is a mélange of prose and verse of the sort suggested by its title, with artistic, original illustrations, full-page and marginal, by A. Mucha, Hy. Myer, Outcault, and others. It is excellently printed.

In the "Belles-Lettres Series," which is being published by Heath,—"Literature for Literature's Sake,"—the aim is to present the most significant works in English literature from the very beginning to the present, in uniform style, particularly for lovers of literature and students. The series is edited by a number of American and English university professors, and the

three latest issues are: "Selected Poems," by Algernon Charles Swinburne, edited, with introduction and notes, by William Morton Payne, LL.D.; "Bussy D'Ambois" and "The Revenge of Bussy D'Ambois," by George Chapman, edited by Frederick S. Boas, M.A.; and "Society" and "Caste," by T. W. Robertson, edited by T. Edgar Pemberton.

The Lippincotts have brought out, in their "French Men of Letters" series, which is edited by Dr. Alexander Jessup, a study of Montaigne, by Dr. Edward Dowden. This volume has as a frontispiece a reproduction of an old print of the famous French es-

sayist.

To a collection of "Old English Love Songs" (Macmillan) Dr. Hamilton Wright Mabie has written an introduction, and George Wharton Edwards has added "An Accompaniment of Decorative Drawings." Almost all of the very famous old English love-songs are included in this brief collection.

#### BOOKS ON MUSIC AND ART.

A very thorough and illuminating work on the development of music is Prof. Edward Dickinson's "Study of the History of Music" (Scribners). This book, which is based upon the plan and method followed in the courses of lectures on musical history and criticism at the Oberlin Conservatory of Music, is really an annotated guide to the entire literature of the musical art. Mr. Dickinson is professor of the history of music at Oberlin, and has already, it will be remembered, brought out a volume, "Music in the History of the Western Church." The biographical and explanatory notes to this volume are very valuable, supplying, with the text, a consecutive narrative of the history of music.

In the important series of works on music being issued by Ditson under the general title "The Musician's Library" we now have "Fifty Piano Compositions by Robert Schumann," edited by Xaver Scharwenka. There is an autograph portrait of Schumann, and an introductory study of Schumann in German, which has been "Englished" by Frederic Field Bullard. There is also a bibliography in English, German, and French. The collection opens with the famous "Papillons." The volume is uniform with those already issued, excellent in typography, engraving, and artistic appearance.

A study of the Italian and Spanish "Paintings of the Louvre" (Doubleday, Page) has been compiled by Dr. Arthur Mahler, in collaboration with Carlos Blacker and W. A. Slater. Reproductions of the famous paintings of Italian and French art, from Cimabue to Veronese, which are in the famous French gallery add to the attractiveness of the volume. They are considered

in historical order.

Reproductions of thirteen historical marine paintings by Edward Moran have been assembled by Mr. Theodore Sutro in an attractive volume, under the title "Thirteen Chapters of American History" (Baker, Taylor). Around these illustrations Mr. Sutro has written a running comment on American history as illustrated in the paintings. There is also an introduction and a biographical memoir of Moran. The reproductions are excellent.

A new edition of Louis Lombard's "Observations d'un Musicien Américain," translated from the original English by Raoul de Lagenardière, has been issued by the house of Theuveny, of Paris. It is dedicated to Massenet.

#### RELIGIOUS WORKS.

An analysis of "The Church of Christ" from the standpoint of a layman has just been published in book form by Funk & Wagnalls. This layman, who has decided convictions and has had a wide commercial and political experience, believes that the non-official membership of the Church should make itself heard in exposition, if not in defense, of Christianity. The author compares Jesus Christ with all other religious teachers, and maintains that he is, by his record of achievement, infinitely superior to them all.

A study of the late Welsh revival and some of the national characteristics of the emotional Welsh people has been written by Mrs. Penn-Lewis, under the title "The Awakening in Wales and Some of the Hidden Springs" (Revell), with an introduction on Welsh re-

vivals by the Rev. J. Cynddylan Jones.

The Open Court Publishing Company has put its imprint on a monograph issued by the Yuhokwan Pub-

lishing House, in Tokio, entitled "Buddhist and Christian Gospels: Being Gospel Parallels from Pali Texts Now First Compared with the Originals." This is the work of Albert J. Edmunds, American representative of the International Buddhist Society and translator of the Dhammapada. The present edition, which is the third and complete one, has been edited, with notes, by M. Anesaki, professor of the science of religion in the Imperial University of Tokio.

The third annual issue of "The Christian Movement in Its Relation to the New Life in Japan" has been published by the Standing Committee of the Coöperating

Christian Missions in Tokio.

A little book on "Self-Control," which is sub-headed "Its Kingship and Majesty" (Revell), by William George Jordan, consists of a series of "robust little essays on a right attitude toward life." Mr. Jordan has a trenchant style and a shrewd, kindly philosophy.

## OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

Apple of Discord, The. By "A Roman Catholic." Apple of Discord Company, Buffalo.

Catherine de Medici and the French Reformation. By Edith Sichel. Dutton.

Certainty of the Kingdom, The. By Heber D. Ketcham, D.D. Jennings & Graham.

Christ of To-day: What? Whence? Whither? The. By G. Campbell Morgan. Revell.

College Text-Book of Botany, A. By George F. Atkinson. Holt.

Elementary English Composition. By Frederick H. Sykes.

Emigrazione Italiana della Republica Argentina (Italian Emigration to the Argentine Republic). By Giovanni Graziani.

Ethics of Imperialism, The. By Albert R. Carman. H. B. Turner & Co., Boston.

Facts and Ideas. By Philip Gibbs. Edward Arnold, Lon-

Folks Next Door. By W. A. Croffut. Eastside Publishing

Company, Washington.

Geology of Western Ore Deposits. By Arthur Lakes. Kendrick Book Company, Denver.

Good Form for Men. By Charles Harcourt. John C. Winston Company.

Harvard Lectures on the Revival of Learning. By John E. Sandys. Macmillan.

Homes of the First Franciscans. By Beryl D. de Selincourt. Dutton.

How to Obtain Happiness and Health. By John J. Snyder. Chicago.

Human Submission (II.). By Morrison I. Swift. Liberty Press, Philadelphia.

Hume's Treatise and Inquiry. By W.B. Elkin. Macmillan. King in Exile, The. By Eva Scott. Dutton.

Kobo: A Story of the Russo-Japanese War. By Herbert Strang. Putnams.

La Neuvaine de Colette. By Jeanne Schultz. William R. Jenkins.

Lessons in Hygienic Physiology. By Walter M. Coleman. Macmillan.

Letters of a Self-Made President. By James J. Neville. Ogilvie Publishing Company.

Little Journeys to Homes of Great Scientists: Darwin. By Elbert Hubbard. Roycrofters.

Lodowick Carleill: His Life and Plays. By Charles H. Gray, Ph.D. University of Chicago Press.

Man Limitless. By Floyd M. Wilson. R. F. Fenno & Co. Manual of Elocution and Expression. By Rev. A. F. Tenney. Dutton.

Middle English Reader, A. By Oliver Farrar Emerson. Macmillan.

Nation and State: A Text-Book on Civil Government. By G. M. Philips. Christopher Sower Company, Philadelphia.

Noblest Quest, The. By Charles Bayard Mitchell. Jennings & Graham.

Old Tales and Modern Ideals. By John Herbert Phillips. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Personal Story of the Upper House, The. By Kosmo Wilkinson. Dutton.

Plea for Universal Peace, A. By Chokei Yoshimura. Practical Commercial Speller, A. By Elizabeth F. Atwood.

Practical Commercial Speller, A. By Elizabeth F. Atwood. Ginn.

Principles of Rhetoric. By Elizabeth H. Spaulding, A.B. Heath. Problems in Maneuver Tactics. By Maj. J. H. V. Crowe.

Macmillan.

Proceedings of the American Forest Congress. H. M. Sutel

Proceedings of the American Forest Congress. H. M. Suter Publishing Company. Washington.

Redeemed Life After Death, The. By Charles Cuthbert Hall. Revell.

Seat Work and Industrial Occupations. By Mary L. Gilman and Elizabeth B. Williams. Macmillan.

Secret of the Circle and the Square, The. By J. C. Willmon. McBride Press, Los Angeles.

Seneca Indian Legends. By John W. Sanborn. Friendship, N. Y.

Their Godfather from Paris: A Comedy. By Lillian Pleasant. E. A. Fink, New York.

The Mind of Methodism,—A Brief. By Rev. Harvey Reeves Calkins. Jennings & Graham.

Wandewana's Prophecy and Fragments in Verse. By Eliza M. Mulcahy. John Murphy Company, Baltimore.

Webster's New Standard Dictionary (Library Edition). Laird & Lee.

